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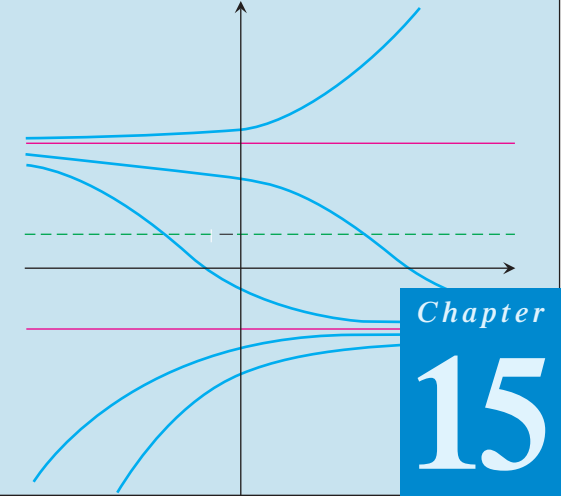

Chapter

15 First-Order Differential Equations

OVERVIEW In Section 4.8 we introduced differential equations of the form $dy/dx = f(x)$, where f is given and y is an unknown function of x. When f is continuous over some interval, we found the general solution $y(x)$ by integration, $y = \int f(x)\,dx$. In Section 6.5 we solved separable differential equations. Such equations arise when investigating exponential growth or decay, for example. In this chapter we study some other types of *first-order* differential equations. They involve only first derivatives of the unknown function.

15.1 Solutions, Slope Fields, and Picard's Theorem

We begin this section by defining general differential equations involving first derivatives. We then look at slope fields, which give a geometric picture of the solutions to such equations. Finally we present Picard's Theorem, which gives conditions under which *first-order* differential equations have exactly one solution.

General First-Order Differential Equations and Solutions

A **first-order differential equation** is an equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) \tag{1}$$

in which $f(x, y)$ is a function of two variables defined on a region in the xy-plane. The equation is of *first order* because it involves only the first derivative dy/dx (and not higher-order derivatives). We point out that the equations

$$y' = f(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}y = f(x, y),$$

are equivalent to Equation (1) and all three forms will be used interchangeably in the text.

A **solution** of Equation (1) is a differentiable function $y = y(x)$ defined on an interval I of x-values (perhaps infinite) such that

$$\frac{d}{dx}y(x) = f(x, y(x))$$

on that interval. That is, when $y(x)$ and its derivative $y'(x)$ are substituted into Equation (1), the resulting equation is true for all x over the interval I. The **general solution** to a first-order differential equation is a solution that contains all possible solutions. The general

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solution always contains an arbitrary constant, but having this property doesn't mean a solution is the general solution. That is, a solution may contain an arbitrary constant without being the general solution. Establishing that a solution *is* the general solution may require deeper results from the theory of differential equations and is best studied in a more advanced course.

EXAMPLE 1 Show that every member of the family of functions

$$y = \frac{C}{x} + 2$$

is a solution of the first-order differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}(2 - y)$$

on the interval $(0, \infty)$, where C is any constant.

Solution Differentiating $y = C/x + 2$ gives

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = C\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) + 0 = -\frac{C}{x^2}.$$

Thus we need only verify that for all $x \in (0, \infty)$,

$$-\frac{C}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x}\left[2 - \left(\frac{C}{x} + 2\right)\right].$$

This last equation follows immediately by expanding the expression on the right-hand side:

$$\frac{1}{x}\left[2 - \left(\frac{C}{x} + 2\right)\right] = \frac{1}{x}\left(-\frac{C}{x}\right) = -\frac{C}{x^2}.$$

Therefore, for every value of C, the function $y = C/x + 2$ is a solution of the differential equation. ■

As was the case in finding antiderivatives, we often need a *particular* rather than the general solution to a first-order differential equation $y' = f(x, y)$. The **particular solution** satisfying the initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$ is the solution $y = y(x)$ whose value is y_0 when $x = x_0$. Thus the graph of the particular solution passes through the point (x_0, y_0) in the xy-plane. A **first-order initial value problem** is a differential equation $y' = f(x, y)$ whose solution must satisfy an initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$.

EXAMPLE 2 Show that the function

$$y = (x + 1) - \frac{1}{3}e^x$$

is a solution to the first-order initial value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y - x, \qquad y(0) = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Solution The equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y - x$$

is a first-order differential equation with $f(x, y) = y - x$.

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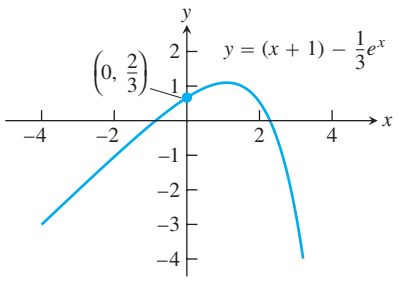

FIGURE 15.1 Graph of the solution $y = (x + 1) - \frac{1}{3}e^x$ to the differential equation $dy/dx = y - x$, with initial condition $y(0) = \frac{2}{3}$ (Example 2).

On the left side of the equation:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(x + 1 - \frac{1}{3}e^x\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{3}e^x.$$

On the right side of the equation:

$$y - x = (x + 1) - \frac{1}{3}e^x - x = 1 - \frac{1}{3}e^x.$$

The function satisfies the initial condition because

$$y(0) = \left[(x + 1) - \frac{1}{3}e^x\right]_{x=0} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

The graph of the function is shown in Figure 15.1. ■

Slope Fields: Viewing Solution Curves

Each time we specify an initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$ for the solution of a differential equation $y' = f(x, y)$, the **solution curve** (graph of the solution) is required to pass through the point (x_0, y_0) and to have slope $f(x_0, y_0)$ there. We can picture these slopes graphically by drawing short line segments of slope $f(x, y)$ at selected points (x, y) in the region of the xy-plane that constitutes the domain of f. Each segment has the same slope as the solution curve through (x, y) and so is tangent to the curve there. The resulting picture is called a **slope field** (or **direction field**) and gives a visualization of the general shape of the solution curves. Figure 15.2a shows a slope field, with a particular solution sketched into it in Figure 15.2b. We see how these line segments indicate the direction the solution curve takes at each point it passes through.

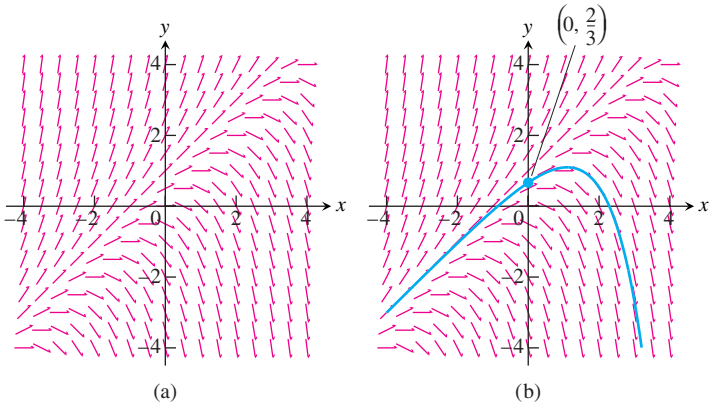

FIGURE 15.2 (a) Slope field for $\frac{dy}{dx} = y - x$. (b) The particular solution curve through the point $\left(0, \frac{2}{3}\right)$ (Example 2).

Figure 15.3 shows three slope fields and we see how the solution curves behave by following the tangent line segments in these fields.

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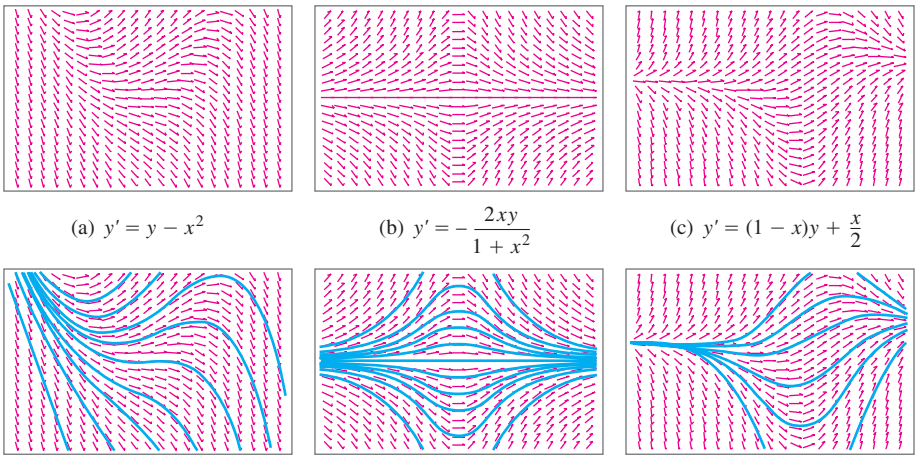

(a) $y' = y - x^2$ (b) $y' = -\dfrac{2xy}{1+x^2}$ (c) $y' = (1-x)y + \dfrac{x}{2}$

FIGURE 15.3 Slope fields (top row) and selected solution curves (bottom row). In computer renditions, slope segments are sometimes portrayed with arrows, as they are here. This is not to be taken as an indication that slopes have directions, however, for they do not.

Constructing a slope field with pencil and paper can be quite tedious. All our examples were generated by a computer.

The Existence of Solutions

A basic question in the study of first-order initial value problems concerns whether a solution even exists. A second important question asks whether there can be more than one solution. Some conditions must be imposed to assure the existence of exactly one solution, as illustrated in the next example.

EXAMPLE 3 The initial value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y^{4/5}, \qquad y(0) = 0$$

has more than one solution. One solution is the constant function $y(x) = 0$ for which the graph lies along the x-axis. A second solution is found by separating variables and integrating, as we did in Section 6.5. This leads to

$$y = \left(\frac{x}{5}\right)^5.$$

The two solutions $y = 0$ and $y = (x/5)^5$ both satisfy the initial condition $y(0) = 0$ (Figure 15.4).

We have found a differential equation with multiple solutions satisfying the same initial condition. This differential equation has even more solutions. For instance, two additional solutions are

$$y = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } x \le 0 \\ \left(\dfrac{x}{5}\right)^5, & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

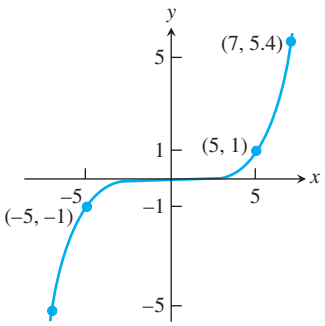

FIGURE 15.4 The graph of the solution $y = (x/5)^5$ to the initial value problem in Example 3. Another solution is $y = 0$.

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and

$$y = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{x}{5}\right)^5, & \text{for } x \le 0 \\ 0, & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases}.$$

In many applications it is desirable to know that there is exactly one solution to an initial value problem. Such a solution is said to be *unique.* Picard's Theorem gives conditions under which there is precisely one solution. It guarantees both the existence and uniqueness of a solution.

THEOREM 1—Picard's Theorem Suppose that both $f(x, y)$ and its partial derivative $\partial f/\partial y$ are continuous on the interior of a rectangle R, and that (x_0, y_0) is an interior point of R. Then the initial value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y), \qquad y(x_0) = y_0 \tag{2}$$

has a unique solution $y = y(x)$ for x in some open interval containing x_0.

The differential equation in Example 3 fails to satisfy the conditions of Picard's Theorem. Although the function $f(x, y) = y^{4/5}$ from Example 3 is continuous in the entire xy-plane, the partial derivative $\partial f/\partial y = (4/5)\, y^{-1/5}$ fails to be continuous at the point (0, 0) specified by the initial condition. Thus we found the possibility of more than one solution to the given initial value problem. Moreover, the partial derivative $\partial f/\partial y$ is not even defined where $y = 0$. However, the initial value problem of Example 3 does have unique solutions whenever the initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$ has $y_0 \neq 0$.

Picard's Iteration Scheme

Picard's Theorem is proved by applying *Picard's iteration scheme*, which we now introduce. We begin by noticing that any solution to the initial value problem of Equations (2) must also satisfy the *integral equation*

$$y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} f(t, y(t))\, dt \tag{3}$$

because

$$\int_{x_0}^{x} \frac{dy}{dt}\, dt = y(x) - y(x_0).$$

The converse is also true: If $y(x)$ satisfies Equation (3), then $y' = f(x, y(x))$ and $y(x_0) = y_0$. So Equations (2) may be replaced by Equation (3). This sets the stage for Picard's interation

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method: In the integrand in Equation (3), replace $y(t)$ by the constant y_0, then integrate and call the resulting right-hand side of Equation (3) $y_1(x)$:

$$y_1(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} f(t, y_0)\, dt. \tag{4}$$

This starts the process. To keep it going, we use the iterative formulas

$$y_{n+1}(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} f(t, y_n(t))\, dt. \tag{5}$$

The proof of Picard's Theorem consists of showing that this process produces a sequence of functions $\{y_n(x)\}$ that converge to a function $y(x)$ that satisfies Equations (2) and (3) for values of x sufficiently near x_0. (The proof also shows that the solution is unique; that is, no other method will lead to a different solution.)

The following examples illustrate the Picard iteration scheme, but in most practical cases the computations soon become too burdensome to continue.

EXAMPLE 4 Illustrate the Picard iteration scheme for the initial value problem

$$y' = x - y, \qquad y(0) = 1.$$

Solution For the problem at hand, $f(x, y) = x - y$, and Equation (4) becomes

$$y_1(x) = 1 + \int_0^x (t - 1)\, dt \qquad y_0 = 1$$

$$= 1 + \frac{x^2}{2} - x.$$

If we now use Equation (5) with $n = 1$, we get

$$y_2(x) = 1 + \int_0^x \left(t - 1 - \frac{t^2}{2} + t\right) dt \qquad \text{Substitute } y_1 \text{ for } y \text{ in } f(t, y).$$

$$= 1 - x + x^2 - \frac{x^3}{6}.$$

The next iteration, with $n = 2$, gives

$$y_3(x) = 1 + \int_0^x \left(t - 1 + t - t^2 + \frac{t^3}{6}\right) dt \qquad \text{Substitute } y_2 \text{ for } y \text{ in } f(t, y).$$

$$= 1 - x + x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{4!}.$$

In this example it is possible to find the exact solution because

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = x$$

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is a first-order differential equation that is linear in y. You will learn how to find the general solution

$$y = x - 1 + Ce^{-x}$$

in the next section. The solution of the initial value problem is then

$$y = x - 1 + 2e^{-x}.$$

If we substitute the Maclaurin series for e^{-x} in this particular solution, we get

$$\begin{aligned} y &= x - 1 + 2\left(1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots\right) \\ &= 1 - x + x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} + 2\left(\frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^5}{5!} + \cdots\right), \end{aligned}$$

and we see that the Picard scheme producing $y_3(x)$ has given us the first four terms of this expansion. ■

In the next example we cannot find a solution in terms of elementary functions. The Picard scheme is one way we could get an idea of how the solution behaves near the initial point.

EXAMPLE 5 Find $y_n(x)$ for $n = 0, 1, 2$, and 3 for the initial value problem

$$y' = x^2 + y^2, \qquad y(0) = 0.$$

Solution By definition, $y_0(x) = y(0) = 0$. The other functions $y_n(x)$ are generated by the integral representation

$$\begin{aligned} y_{n+1}(x) &= 0 + \int_0^x \left[t^2 + (y_n(t))^2\right] dt \\ &= \frac{x^3}{3} + \int_0^x (y_n(t))^2\, dt. \end{aligned}$$

We successively calculate

$$y_1(x) = \frac{x^3}{3},$$

$$y_2(x) = \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^7}{63},$$

$$y_3(x) = \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^7}{63} + \frac{2x^{11}}{2079} + \frac{x^{15}}{59535}.$$ ■

In Section 15.4 we introduce numerical methods for solving initial value problems like those in Examples 4 and 5.

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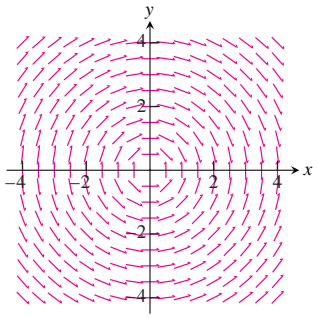
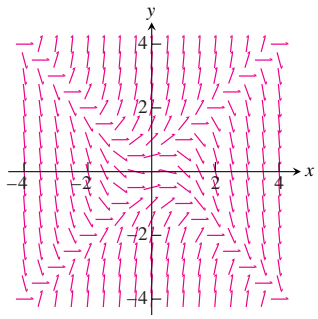
EXERCISES 15.1

In Exercises 1–4, match the differential equations with their slope fields, graphed here.



(a)



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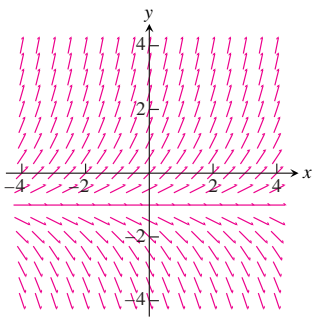
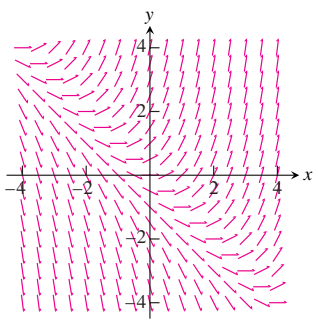


(c)



(d)

1. $y' = x + y$

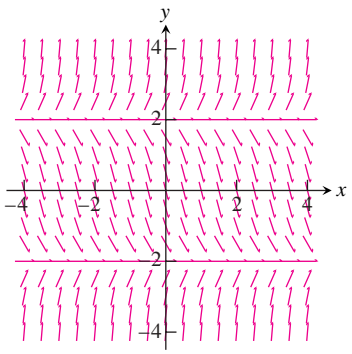
2. $y' = y + 1$

3. $y' = -\dfrac{x}{y}$

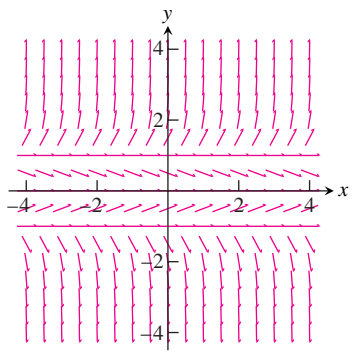
4. $y' = y^2 - x^2$

In Exercises 5 and 6, copy the slope fields and sketch in some of the solution curves.

5. $y' = (y + 2)(y - 2)$



6. $y' = y(y + 1)(y - 1)$



In Exercises 7–10, write an equivalent first-order differential equation and initial condition for y.

7. $y = -1 + \displaystyle\int_1^x (t - y(t))\, dt$

8. $y = \displaystyle\int_1^x \frac{1}{t}\, dt$

9. $y = 2 - \displaystyle\int_0^x (1 + y(t)) \sin t\, dt$

10. $y = 1 + \displaystyle\int_0^x y(t)\, dt$

Use Picard's iteration scheme to find $y_n(x)$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, 3$ in Exercises 11–16.

11. $y' = x, \quad y(1) = 2$

12. $y' = y, \quad y(0) = 1$

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13. $y' = xy, \quad y(1) = 1$

14. $y' = x + y, \quad y(0) = 0$

15. $y' = x + y, \quad y(0) = 1$

16. $y' = 2x - y, \quad y(-1) = 1$

17. Show that the solution of the initial value problem

$$y' = x + y, \quad y(x_0) = y_0$$

is

$$y = -1 - x + (1 + x_0 + y_0)\, e^{x - x_0}.$$

18. What integral equation is equivalent to the initial value problem $y' = f(x)$, $y(x_0) = y_0$?

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

In Exercises 19–24, obtain a slope field and add to it graphs of the solution curves passing through the given points.

19. $y' = y$ with

a. $(0, 1)$ **b.** $(0, 2)$ **c.** $(0, -1)$

20. $y' = 2(y - 4)$ with

a. $(0, 1)$ **b.** $(0, 4)$ **c.** $(0, 5)$

21. $y' = y(x + y)$ with

a. $(0, 1)$ **b.** $(0, -2)$ **c.** $(0, 1/4)$ **d.** $(-1, -1)$

22. $y' = y^2$ with

a. $(0, 1)$ **b.** $(0, 2)$ **c.** $(0, -1)$ **d.** $(0, 0)$

23. $y' = (y - 1)(x + 2)$ with

a. $(0, -1)$ **b.** $(0, 1)$ **c.** $(0, 3)$ **d.** $(1, -1)$

24. $y' = \dfrac{xy}{x^2 + 4}$ with

a. $(0, 2)$ **b.** $(0, -6)$ **c.** $\left(-2\sqrt{3}, -4\right)$

In Exercises 25 and 26, obtain a slope field and graph the particular solution over the specified interval. Use your CAS DE solver to find the general solution of the differential equation.

25. A logistic equation $y' = y(2 - y), \quad y(0) = 1/2;$ $0 \le x \le 4, \quad 0 \le y \le 3$

26. $y' = (\sin x)(\sin y), \quad y(0) = 2; \quad -6 \le x \le 6, \quad -6 \le y \le 6$

Exercises 27 and 28 have no explicit solution in terms of elementary functions. Use a CAS to explore graphically each of the differential equations.

27. $y' = \cos(2x - y), \quad y(0) = 2; \quad 0 \le x \le 5, \quad 0 \le y \le 5$

28. A Gompertz equation $y' = y(1/2 - \ln y), \quad y(0) = 1/3;$ $0 \le x \le 4, \quad 0 \le y \le 3$

29. Use a CAS to find the solutions of $y' + y = f(x)$ subject to the initial condition $y(0) = 0$, if $f(x)$ is

a. $2x$ **b.** $\sin 2x$ **c.** $3e^{x/2}$ **d.** $2e^{-x/2}\cos 2x$.

Graph all four solutions over the interval $-2 \le x \le 6$ to compare the results.

30. a. Use a CAS to plot the slope field of the differential equation

$$y' = \frac{3x^2 + 4x + 2}{2(y - 1)}$$

over the region $-3 \le x \le 3$ and $-3 \le y \le 3$.

b. Separate the variables and use a CAS integrator to find the general solution in implicit form.

c. Using a CAS implicit function grapher, plot solution curves for the arbitrary constant values $C = -6, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, 6$.

d. Find and graph the solution that satisfies the initial condition $y(0) = -1$.

15.2 First-Order Linear Equations

A first-order **linear** differential equation is one that can be written in the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x), \tag{1}$$

where P and Q are continuous functions of x. Equation (1) is the linear equation's **standard form**. Since the exponential growth/decay equation $dy/dx = ky$ (Section 6.5) can be put in the standard form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - ky = 0,$$

we see it is a linear equation with $P(x) = -k$ and $Q(x) = 0$. Equation (1) is *linear* (in y) because y and its derivative dy/dx occur only to the first power, are not multiplied together, nor do they appear as the argument of a function (such as $\sin y$, e^y, or $\sqrt{dy/dx}$).

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EXAMPLE 1 Put the following equation in standard form:

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 + 3y, \qquad x > 0.$$

Solution

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 + 3y$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x + \frac{3}{x}y \qquad \text{Divide by } x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{3}{x}y = x \qquad \text{Standard form with } P(x) = -3/x \text{ and } Q(x) = x$$

Notice that $P(x)$ is $-3/x$, not $+3/x$. The standard form is $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$, so the minus sign is part of the formula for $P(x)$. ■

Solving Linear Equations

We solve the equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x) \tag{2}$$

by multiplying both sides by a *positive* function $v(x)$ that transforms the left-hand side into the derivative of the product $v(x) \cdot y$. We will show how to find v in a moment, but first we want to show how, once found, it provides the solution we seek.

Here is why multiplying by $v(x)$ works:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x) \qquad \text{Original equation is in standard form.}$$

$$v(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)v(x)y = v(x)Q(x) \qquad \text{Multiply by positive } v(x).$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(v(x)\cdot y) = v(x)Q(x) \qquad v(x) \text{ is chosen to make } v\frac{dy}{dx} + Pvy = \frac{d}{dx}(v\cdot y).$$

$$v(x)\cdot y = \int v(x)Q(x)\,dx \qquad \text{Integrate with respect to } x.$$

$$y = \frac{1}{v(x)}\int v(x)Q(x)\,dx \tag{3}$$

Equation (3) expresses the solution of Equation (2) in terms of the function $v(x)$ and $Q(x)$. We call $v(x)$ an **integrating factor** for Equation (2) because its presence makes the equation integrable.

Why doesn't the formula for $P(x)$ appear in the solution as well? It does, but indirectly, in the construction of the positive function $v(x)$. We have

$$\frac{d}{dx}(vy) = v\frac{dy}{dx} + Pvy \qquad \text{Condition imposed on } v$$

$$v\frac{dy}{dx} + y\frac{dv}{dx} = v\frac{dy}{dx} + Pvy \qquad \text{Product Rule for derivatives}$$

$$y\frac{dv}{dx} = Pvy \qquad \text{The terms } v\frac{dy}{dx} \text{ cancel.}$$

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This last equation will hold if

$$\frac{dv}{dx} = Pv$$

$$\frac{dv}{v} = P\,dx \qquad \text{Variables separated, } v > 0$$

$$\int \frac{dv}{v} = \int P\,dx \qquad \text{Integrate both sides.}$$

$$\ln v = \int P\,dx \qquad \text{Since } v > 0\text{, we do not need absolute value signs in } \ln v.$$

$$e^{\ln v} = e^{\int P\,dx} \qquad \text{Exponentiate both sides to solve for } v.$$

$$v = e^{\int P\,dx} \tag{4}$$

Thus a formula for the general solution to Equation (1) is given by Equation (3), where $v(x)$ is given by Equation (4). However, rather than memorizing the formula, just remember how to find the integrating factor once you have the standard form so $P(x)$ is correctly identified.

> To solve the linear equation $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$, multiply both sides by the integrating factor $v(x) = e^{\int P(x)\,dx}$ and integrate both sides.

When you integrate the left-hand side product in this procedure, you always obtain the product $v(x)y$ of the integrating factor and solution function y because of the way v is defined.

EXAMPLE 2 Solve the equation

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 + 3y, \qquad x > 0.$$

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

Adrien Marie Legendre
(1752–1833)

Solution First we put the equation in standard form (Example 1):

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{3}{x}y = x,$$

so $P(x) = -3/x$ is identified.

The integrating factor is

$$v(x) = e^{\int P(x)\,dx} = e^{\int (-3/x)\,dx}$$

$$= e^{-3\ln|x|} \qquad \text{Constant of integration is 0, so } v \text{ is as simple as possible.}$$

$$= e^{-3\ln x} \qquad x > 0$$

$$= e^{\ln x^{-3}} = \frac{1}{x^3}.$$

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Next we multiply both sides of the standard form by $v(x)$ and integrate:

$$\frac{1}{x^3}\cdot\left(\frac{dy}{dx}-\frac{3}{x}y\right)=\frac{1}{x^3}\cdot x$$

$$\frac{1}{x^3}\frac{dy}{dx}-\frac{3}{x^4}y=\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{1}{x^3}y\right)=\frac{1}{x^2} \qquad \text{Left-hand side is } \frac{d}{dx}(v\cdot y).$$

$$\frac{1}{x^3}y=\int\frac{1}{x^2}\,dx \qquad \text{Integrate both sides.}$$

$$\frac{1}{x^3}y=-\frac{1}{x}+C.$$

Solving this last equation for y gives the general solution:

$$y=x^3\left(-\frac{1}{x}+C\right)=-x^2+Cx^3, \qquad x>0. \quad \blacksquare$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the particular solution of

$$3xy'-y=\ln x+1, \qquad x>0,$$

satisfying $y(1)=-2$.

Solution With $x>0$, we write the equation in standard form:

$$y'-\frac{1}{3x}y=\frac{\ln x+1}{3x}.$$

Then the integrating factor is given by

$$v=e^{\int -dx/3x}=e^{(-1/3)\ln x}=x^{-1/3}. \qquad x>0$$

Thus

$$x^{-1/3}y=\frac{1}{3}\int(\ln x+1)x^{-4/3}\,dx. \qquad \text{Left-hand side is } vy.$$

Integration by parts of the right-hand side gives

$$x^{-1/3}y=-x^{-1/3}(\ln x+1)+\int x^{-4/3}\,dx+C.$$

Therefore

$$x^{-1/3}y=-x^{-1/3}(\ln x+1)-3x^{-1/3}+C$$

or, solving for y,

$$y=-(\ln x+4)+Cx^{1/3}.$$

When $x=1$ and $y=-2$ this last equation becomes

$$-2=-(0+4)+C,$$

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so

$$C = 2.$$

Substitution into the equation for y gives the particular solution

$$y = 2x^{1/3} - \ln x - 4.$$ ■

In solving the linear equation in Example 2, we integrated both sides of the equation after multiplying each side by the integrating factor. However, we can shorten the amount of work, as in Example 3, by remembering that the left-hand side *always* integrates into the product $v(x) \cdot y$ of the integrating factor times the solution function. From Equation (3) this means that

$$v(x)y = \int v(x)Q(x)\,dx.$$

We need only integrate the product of the integrating factor $v(x)$ with the right-hand side $Q(x)$ of Equation (1) and then equate the result with $v(x)y$ to obtain the general solution. Nevertheless, to emphasize the role of $v(x)$ in the solution process, we sometimes follow the complete procedure as illustrated in Example 2.

Observe that if the function $Q(x)$ is identically zero in the standard form given by Equation (1), the linear equation is separable:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = 0 \qquad Q(x) \equiv 0$$

$$dy = -P(x)\,dx \qquad \text{Separating the variables}$$

We now present two applied problems modeled by a first-order linear differential equation.

RL Circuits

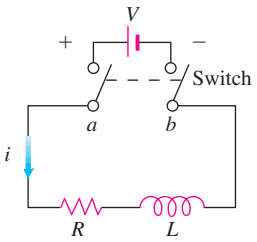

FIGURE 15.5 The *RL* circuit in Example 4.

The diagram in Figure 15.5 represents an electrical circuit whose total resistance is a constant R ohms and whose self-inductance, shown as a coil, is L henries, also a constant. There is a switch whose terminals at a and b can be closed to connect a constant electrical source of V volts.

Ohm's Law, $V = RI$, has to be modified for such a circuit. The modified form is

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = V, \tag{5}$$

where i is the intensity of the current in amperes and t is the time in seconds. By solving this equation, we can predict how the current will flow after the switch is closed.

EXAMPLE 4 The switch in the *RL* circuit in Figure 15.5 is closed at time $t = 0$. How will the current flow as a function of time?

Solution Equation (5) is a first-order linear differential equation for i as a function of t. Its standard form is

$$\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{R}{L}i = \frac{V}{L}, \tag{6}$$

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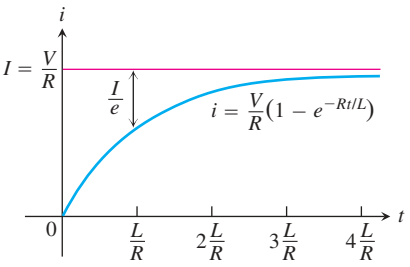

FIGURE 15.6 The growth of the current in the *RL* circuit in Example 4. I is the current's steady-state value. The number $t = L/R$ is the time constant of the circuit. The current gets to within 5% of its steady-state value in 3 time constants (Exercise 31).

and the corresponding solution, given that $i = 0$ when $t = 0$, is

$$i = \frac{V}{R} - \frac{V}{R}e^{-(R/L)t} \tag{7}$$

(Exercise 32). Since R and L are positive, $-(R/L)$ is negative and $e^{-(R/L)t} \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$. Thus,

$$\lim_{t\to\infty} i = \lim_{t\to\infty}\left(\frac{V}{R} - \frac{V}{R}e^{-(R/L)t}\right) = \frac{V}{R} - \frac{V}{R}\cdot 0 = \frac{V}{R}.$$

At any given time, the current is theoretically less than V/R, but as time passes, the current approaches the **steady-state value** V/R. According to the equation

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = V,$$

$I = V/R$ is the current that will flow in the circuit if either $L = 0$ (no inductance) or $di/dt = 0$ (steady current, i = constant) (Figure 15.6).

Equation (7) expresses the solution of Equation (6) as the sum of two terms: a **steady-state solution** V/R and a **transient solution** $-(V/R)e^{-(R/L)t}$ that tends to zero as $t \to \infty$. ■

Mixture Problems

A chemical in a liquid solution (or dispersed in a gas) runs into a container holding the liquid (or the gas) with, possibly, a specified amount of the chemical dissolved as well. The mixture is kept uniform by stirring and flows out of the container at a known rate. In this process, it is often important to know the concentration of the chemical in the container at any given time. The differential equation describing the process is based on the formula

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{Rate of change}\\ \text{of amount}\\ \text{in container}\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\text{rate at which}\\ \text{chemical}\\ \text{arrives}\end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix}\text{rate at which}\\ \text{chemical}\\ \text{departs.}\end{pmatrix} \tag{8}$$

If $y(t)$ is the amount of chemical in the container at time t and $V(t)$ is the total volume of liquid in the container at time t, then the departure rate of the chemical at time t is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Departure rate} &= \frac{y(t)}{V(t)}\cdot(\text{outflow rate})\\ &= \begin{pmatrix}\text{concentration in}\\ \text{container at time } t\end{pmatrix}\cdot(\text{outflow rate}).\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Accordingly, Equation (8) becomes

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = (\text{chemical's arrival rate}) - \frac{y(t)}{V(t)}\cdot(\text{outflow rate}). \tag{10}$$

If, say, y is measured in pounds, V in gallons, and t in minutes, the units in Equation (10) are

$$\frac{\text{pounds}}{\text{minutes}} = \frac{\text{pounds}}{\text{minutes}} - \frac{\text{pounds}}{\text{gallons}}\cdot\frac{\text{gallons}}{\text{minutes}}.$$

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EXAMPLE 5 In an oil refinery, a storage tank contains 2000 gal of gasoline that initially has 100 lb of an additive dissolved in it. In preparation for winter weather, gasoline containing 2 lb of additive per gallon is pumped into the tank at a rate of 40 gal/min. The well-mixed solution is pumped out at a rate of 45 gal/min. How much of the additive is in the tank 20 min after the pumping process begins (Figure 15.7)?

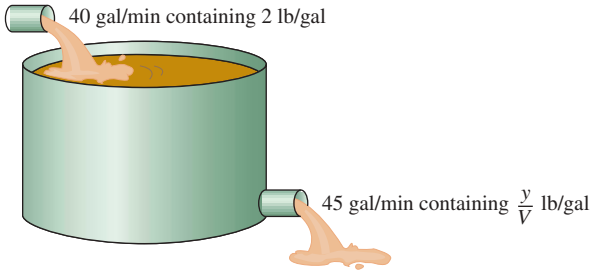

FIGURE 15.7 The storage tank in Example 5 mixes input liquid with stored liquid to produce an output liquid.

Solution Let y be the amount (in pounds) of additive in the tank at time t. We know that $y = 100$ when $t = 0$. The number of gallons of gasoline and additive in solution in the tank at any time t is

$$V(t) = 2000 \text{ gal} + \left(40\frac{\text{gal}}{\text{min}} - 45\frac{\text{gal}}{\text{min}}\right)(t \text{ min})$$
$$= (2000 - 5t) \text{ gal}.$$

Therefore,

$$\text{Rate out} = \frac{y(t)}{V(t)} \cdot \text{outflow rate} \qquad \text{Eq. (9)}$$
$$= \left(\frac{y}{2000 - 5t}\right)45 \qquad \text{Outflow rate is 45 gal/min and } v = 2000 - 5t.$$
$$= \frac{45y}{2000 - 5t}\frac{\text{lb}}{\text{min}}.$$

Also,

$$\text{Rate in} = \left(2\frac{\text{lb}}{\text{gal}}\right)\left(40\frac{\text{gal}}{\text{min}}\right)$$
$$= 80\frac{\text{lb}}{\text{min}}. \qquad \text{Eq. (10)}$$

The differential equation modeling the mixture process is

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = 80 - \frac{45y}{2000 - 5t}$$

in pounds per minute.

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To solve this differential equation, we first write it in standard form:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{45}{2000 - 5t}\, y = 80.$$

Thus, $P(t) = 45/(2000 - 5t)$ and $Q(t) = 80$. The integrating factor is

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) = e^{\int P\, dt} &= e^{\int \frac{45}{2000-5t}\, dt} \\ &= e^{-9 \ln (2000-5t)} \qquad 2000 - 5t > 0 \\ &= (2000 - 5t)^{-9}. \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying both sides of the standard equation by $v(t)$ and integrating both sides gives

$$(2000 - 5t)^{-9} \cdot \left(\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{45}{2000 - 5t}\, y\right) = 80(2000 - 5t)^{-9}$$

$$(2000 - 5t)^{-9} \frac{dy}{dt} + 45(2000 - 5t)^{-10}\, y = 80(2000 - 5t)^{-9}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left[(2000 - 5t)^{-9} y\right] = 80(2000 - 5t)^{-9}$$

$$(2000 - 5t)^{-9} y = \int 80(2000 - 5t)^{-9}\, dt$$

$$(2000 - 5t)^{-9} y = 80 \cdot \frac{(2000 - 5t)^{-8}}{(-8)(-5)} + C.$$

The general solution is

$$y = 2(2000 - 5t) + C(2000 - 5t)^9.$$

Because $y = 100$ when $t = 0$, we can determine the value of C:

$$100 = 2(2000 - 0) + C(2000 - 0)^9$$

$$C = -\frac{3900}{(2000)^9}.$$

The particular solution of the initial value problem is

$$y = 2(2000 - 5t) - \frac{3900}{(2000)^9}(2000 - 5t)^9.$$

The amount of additive 20 min after the pumping begins is

$$y(20) = 2[2000 - 5(20)] - \frac{3900}{(2000)^9}[2000 - 5(20)]^9 \approx 1342 \text{ lb}. \quad \blacksquare$$

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EXERCISES 15.2

Solve the differential equations in Exercises 1–14.

1. $x\dfrac{dy}{dx} + y = e^x, \quad x > 0$

2. $e^x\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 2e^x y = 1$

3. $xy' + 3y = \dfrac{\sin x}{x^2}, \quad x > 0$

4. $y' + (\tan x)y = \cos^2 x, \quad -\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$

5. $x\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 1 - \dfrac{1}{x}, \quad x > 0$

6. $(1 + x)y' + y = \sqrt{x}$

7. $2y' = e^{x/2} + y$

8. $e^{2x}y' + 2e^{2x}y = 2x$

9. $xy' - y = 2x\ln x$

10. $x\dfrac{dy}{dx} = \dfrac{\cos x}{x} - 2y, \quad x > 0$

11. $(t - 1)^3\dfrac{ds}{dt} + 4(t - 1)^2 s = t + 1, \quad t > 1$

12. $(t + 1)\dfrac{ds}{dt} + 2s = 3(t + 1) + \dfrac{1}{(t + 1)^2}, \quad t > -1$

13. $\sin\theta\dfrac{dr}{d\theta} + (\cos\theta)r = \tan\theta, \quad 0 < \theta < \pi/2$

14. $\tan\theta\dfrac{dr}{d\theta} + r = \sin^2\theta, \quad 0 < \theta < \pi/2$

Solve the initial value problems in Exercises 15–20.

15. $\dfrac{dy}{dt} + 2y = 3, \quad y(0) = 1$

16. $t\dfrac{dy}{dt} + 2y = t^3, \quad t > 0, \quad y(2) = 1$

17. $\theta\dfrac{dy}{d\theta} + y = \sin\theta, \quad \theta > 0, \quad y(\pi/2) = 1$

18. $\theta\dfrac{dy}{d\theta} - 2y = \theta^3\sec\theta\tan\theta, \quad \theta > 0, \quad y(\pi/3) = 2$

19. $(x + 1)\dfrac{dy}{dx} - 2(x^2 + x)y = \dfrac{e^{x^2}}{x + 1}, \quad x > -1, \quad y(0) = 5$

20. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} + xy = x, \quad y(0) = -6$

21. Solve the exponential growth/decay initial value problem for y as a function of t thinking of the differential equation as a first-order linear equation with $P(x) = -k$ and $Q(x) = 0$:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = ky \quad (k \text{ constant}), \quad y(0) = y_0$$

22. Solve the following initial value problem for u as a function of t:

$$\frac{du}{dt} + \frac{k}{m}u = 0 \quad (k \text{ and } m \text{ positive constants}), \quad u(0) = u_0$$

a. as a first-order linear equation.

b. as a separable equation.

23. Is either of the following equations correct? Give reasons for your answers.

a. $x\displaystyle\int \frac{1}{x}\,dx = x\ln|x| + C$ **b.** $x\displaystyle\int \frac{1}{x}\,dx = x\ln|x| + Cx$

24. Is either of the following equations correct? Give reasons for your answers.

a. $\dfrac{1}{\cos x}\displaystyle\int \cos x\,dx = \tan x + C$

b. $\dfrac{1}{\cos x}\displaystyle\int \cos x\,dx = \tan x + \dfrac{C}{\cos x}$

25. Salt mixture A tank initially contains 100 gal of brine in which 50 lb of salt are dissolved. A brine containing 2 lb/gal of salt runs into the tank at the rate of 5 gal/min. The mixture is kept uniform by stirring and flows out of the tank at the rate of 4 gal/min.

a. At what rate (pounds per minute) does salt enter the tank at time t?

b. What is the volume of brine in the tank at time t?

c. At what rate (pounds per minute) does salt leave the tank at time t?

d. Write down and solve the initial value problem describing the mixing process.

e. Find the concentration of salt in the tank 25 min after the process starts.

26. Mixture problem A 200-gal tank is half full of distilled water. At time $t = 0$, a solution containing 0.5 lb/gal of concentrate enters the tank at the rate of 5 gal/min, and the well-stirred mixture is withdrawn at the rate of 3 gal/min.

a. At what time will the tank be full?

b. At the time the tank is full, how many pounds of concentrate will it contain?

27. Fertilizer mixture A tank contains 100 gal of fresh water. A solution containing 1 lb/gal of soluble lawn fertilizer runs into the tank at the rate of 1 gal/min, and the mixture is pumped out of the tank at the rate of 3 gal/min. Find the maximum amount of fertilizer in the tank and the time required to reach the maximum.

28. Carbon monoxide pollution An executive conference room of a corporation contains 4500 ft^3 of air initially free of carbon monoxide. Starting at time $t = 0$, cigarette smoke containing 4% carbon monoxide is blown into the room at the rate of 0.3 ft^3/min. A ceiling fan keeps the air in the room well circulated and the air leaves the room at the same rate of 0.3 ft^3/min. Find the time when the concentration of carbon monoxide in the room reaches 0.01%.

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29. Current in a closed *RL* circuit How many seconds after the switch in an *RL* circuit is closed will it take the current i to reach half of its steady-state value? Notice that the time depends on R and L and not on how much voltage is applied.

30. Current in an open *RL* circuit If the switch is thrown open after the current in an *RL* circuit has built up to its steady-state value $I = V/R$, the decaying current (graphed here) obeys the equation

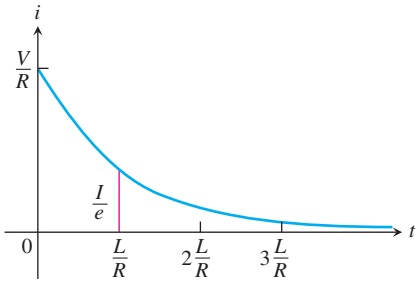
$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = 0,$$

which is Equation (5) with $V = 0$.

a. Solve the equation to express i as a function of t.

b. How long after the switch is thrown will it take the current to fall to half its original value?

c. Show that the value of the current when $t = L/R$ is I/e. (The significance of this time is explained in the next exercise.)



31. Time constants Engineers call the number L/R the *time constant* of the *RL* circuit in Figure 15.6. The significance of the time constant is that the current will reach 95% of its final value within 3 time constants of the time the switch is closed (Figure 15.6). Thus, the time constant gives a built-in measure of how rapidly an individual circuit will reach equilibrium.

a. Find the value of i in Equation (7) that corresponds to $t = 3L/R$ and show that it is about 95% of the steady-state value $I = V/R$.

b. Approximately what percentage of the steady-state current will be flowing in the circuit 2 time constants after the switch is closed (i.e., when $t = 2L/R$)?

32. Derivation of Equation (7) in Example 4

a. Show that the solution of the equation

$$\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{R}{L}i = \frac{V}{L}$$

is

$$i = \frac{V}{R} + Ce^{-(R/L)t}.$$

b. Then use the initial condition $i(0) = 0$ to determine the value of C. This will complete the derivation of Equation (7).

c. Show that $i = V/R$ is a solution of Equation (6) and that $i = Ce^{-(R/L)t}$ satisfies the equation

$$\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{R}{L}i = 0.$$

Historical Biography

James Bernoulli
(1654–1705)

A **Bernoulli differential equation** is of the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)y^n.$$

Observe that, if $n = 0$ or 1, the Bernoulli equation is linear. For other values of n, the substitution $u = y^{1-n}$ transforms the Bernoulli equation into the linear equation

$$\frac{du}{dx} + (1 - n)P(x)u = (1 - n)Q(x).$$

For example, in the equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^{-x}y^2$$

we have $n = 2$, so that $u = y^{1-2} = y^{-1}$ and $du/dx = -y^{-2}\,dy/dx$. Then $dy/dx = -y^2\,du/dx = -u^{-2}\,du/dx$. Substitution into the original equation gives

$$-u^{-2}\frac{du}{dx} - u^{-1} = e^{-x}u^{-2}$$

or, equivalently,

$$\frac{du}{dx} + u = -e^{-x}.$$

This last equation is linear in the (unknown) dependent variable u.

Solve the differential equations in Exercises 33–36.

33. $y' - y = -y^2$ **34.** $y' - y = xy^2$

35. $xy' + y = y^{-2}$ **36.** $x^2y' + 2xy = y^3$

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15.3 Applications

We now look at three applications of first-order differential equations. The first application analyzes an object moving along a straight line while subject to a force opposing its motion. The second is a model of population growth. The last application considers a curve or curves intersecting each curve in a second family of curves *orthogonally* (that is, at right angles).

Resistance Proportional to Velocity

In some cases it is reasonable to assume that the resistance encountered by a moving object, such as a car coasting to a stop, is proportional to the object's velocity. The faster the object moves, the more its forward progress is resisted by the air through which it passes. Picture the object as a mass m moving along a coordinate line with position function s and velocity v at time t. From Newton's second law of motion, the resisting force opposing the motion is

$$\text{Force} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration} = m\frac{dv}{dt}.$$

If the resisting force is proportional to velocity, we have

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} = -kv \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{k}{m}v \qquad (k > 0).$$

This is a separable differential equation representing exponential change. The solution to the equation with initial condition $v = v_0$ at $t = 0$ is (Section 6.5)

$$v = v_0 e^{-(k/m)t}. \tag{1}$$

What can we learn from Equation (1)? For one thing, we can see that if m is something large, like the mass of a 20,000-ton ore boat in Lake Erie, it will take a long time for the velocity to approach zero (because t must be large in the exponent of the equation in order to make kt/m large enough for v to be small). We can learn even more if we integrate Equation (1) to find the position s as a function of time t.

Suppose that a body is coasting to a stop and the only force acting on it is a resistance proportional to its speed. How far will it coast? To find out, we start with Equation (1) and solve the initial value problem

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = v_0 e^{-(k/m)t}, \qquad s(0) = 0.$$

Integrating with respect to t gives

$$s = -\frac{v_0 m}{k} e^{-(k/m)t} + C.$$

Substituting $s = 0$ when $t = 0$ gives

$$0 = -\frac{v_0 m}{k} + C \qquad \text{and} \qquad C = \frac{v_0 m}{k}.$$

The body's position at time t is therefore

$$s(t) = -\frac{v_0 m}{k} e^{-(k/m)t} + \frac{v_0 m}{k} = \frac{v_0 m}{k}(1 - e^{-(k/m)t}). \tag{2}$$

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To find how far the body will coast, we find the limit of $s(t)$ as $t \to \infty$. Since $-(k/m) < 0$, we know that $e^{-(k/m)t} \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$, so that

$$\lim_{t\to\infty} s(t) = \lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{v_0 m}{k}(1 - e^{-(k/m)t}) = \frac{v_0 m}{k}(1 - 0) = \frac{v_0 m}{k}.$$

Thus,

$$\text{Distance coasted} = \frac{v_0 m}{k}. \tag{3}$$

The number $v_0 m/k$ is only an upper bound (albeit a useful one). It is true to life in one respect, at least: if m is large, it will take a lot of energy to stop the body.

In the English system, where weight is measured in pounds, mass is measured in **slugs**. Thus,

$$\text{Pounds} = \text{slugs} \times 32,$$

assuming the gravitational constant is 32 ft/sec^2.

EXAMPLE 1 For a 192-lb ice skater, the k in Equation (1) is about 1/3 slug/sec and $m = 192/32 = 6$ slugs. How long will it take the skater to coast from 11 ft/sec (7.5 mph) to 1 ft/sec? How far will the skater coast before coming to a complete stop?

Solution We answer the first question by solving Equation (1) for t:

$$\begin{aligned} 11e^{-t/18} &= 1 && \text{Eq. (1) with } k = 1/3,\ m = 6,\ v_0 = 11,\ v = 1 \\ e^{-t/18} &= 1/11 \\ -t/18 &= \ln(1/11) = -\ln 11 \\ t &= 18 \ln 11 \approx 43 \text{ sec}. \end{aligned}$$

We answer the second question with Equation (3):

$$\text{Distance coasted} = \frac{v_0 m}{k} = \frac{11 \cdot 6}{1/3} = 198 \text{ ft}.$$

■

Modeling Population Growth

In Section 6.5 we modeled population growth with the Law of Exponential Change:

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = kP, \qquad P(0) = P_0$$

where P is the population at time t, $k > 0$ is a constant growth rate, and P_0 is the size of the population at time $t = 0$. In Section 6.5 we found the solution $P = P_0 e^{kt}$ to this model.

To assess the model, notice that the exponential growth differential equation says that

$$\frac{dP/dt}{P} = k \tag{4}$$

is constant. This rate is called the **relative growth rate**. Now, Table 15.1 gives the world population at midyear for the years 1980 to 1989. Taking $dt = 1$ and $dP \approx \Delta P$, we see from the table that the relative growth rate in Equation (4) is approximately the constant 0.017. Thus, based on the tabled data with $t = 0$ representing 1980, $t = 1$ representing 1981, and so forth, the world population could be modeled by the initial value problem,

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = 0.017P, \qquad P(0) = 4454.$$

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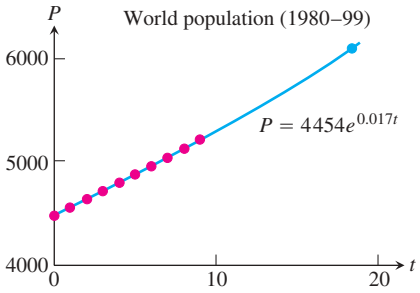

FIGURE 15.8 Notice that the value of the solution $P = 4454e^{0.017t}$ is 6152.16 when $t = 19$, which is slightly higher than the actual population in 1999.

TABLE 15.1 World population (midyear)

Year	Population (millions)	$\Delta P/P$
1980	4454	$76/4454 \approx 0.0171$
1981	4530	$80/4530 \approx 0.0177$
1982	4610	$80/4610 \approx 0.0174$
1983	4690	$80/4690 \approx 0.0171$
1984	4770	$81/4770 \approx 0.0170$
1985	4851	$82/4851 \approx 0.0169$
1986	4933	$85/4933 \approx 0.0172$
1987	5018	$87/5018 \approx 0.0173$
1988	5105	$85/5105 \approx 0.0167$
1989	5190	

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census (Sept., 1999): www.census.gov/ipc/www/worldpop.html.

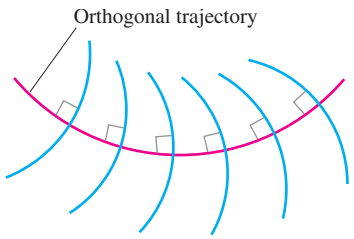

FIGURE 15.9 An orthogonal trajectory intersects the family of curves at right angles, or orthogonally.

The solution to this initial value problem gives the population function $P = 4454e^{0.017t}$. In year 1999 (so $t = 19$), the solution predicts the world population in midyear to be about 6152 million, or 6.15 billion (Figure 15.8), which is more than the actual population of 6001 million from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. In Section 15.5 we propose a more realistic model considering environmental factors affecting the growth rate.

Orthogonal Trajectories

An **orthogonal trajectory** of a family of curves is a curve that intersects each curve of the family at right angles, or *orthogonally* (Figure 15.9). For instance, each straight line through the origin is an orthogonal trajectory of the family of circles $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, centered at the origin (Figure 15.10). Such mutually orthogonal systems of curves are of particular importance in physical problems related to electrical potential, where the curves in one family correspond to flow of electric current and those in the other family correspond to curves of constant potential. They also occur in hydrodynamics and heat-flow problems.

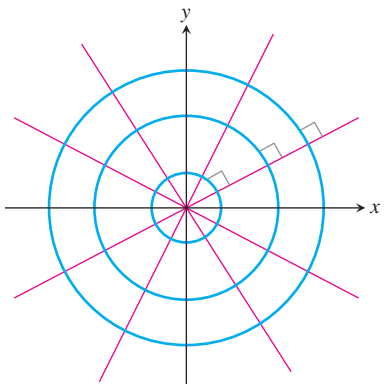

FIGURE 15.10 Every straight line through the origin is orthogonal to the family of circles centered at the origin.

EXAMPLE 2 Find the orthogonal trajectories of the family of curves $xy = a$, where $a \neq 0$ is an arbitrary constant.

Solution The curves $xy = a$ form a family of hyperbolas with asymptotes $y = \pm x$. First we find the slopes of each curve in this family, or their dy/dx values. Differentiating $xy = a$ implicitly gives

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{y}{x}.$$

Thus the slope of the tangent line at any point (x, y) on one of the hyperbolas $xy = a$ is $y' = -y/x$. On an orthogonal trajectory the slope of the tangent line at this same point

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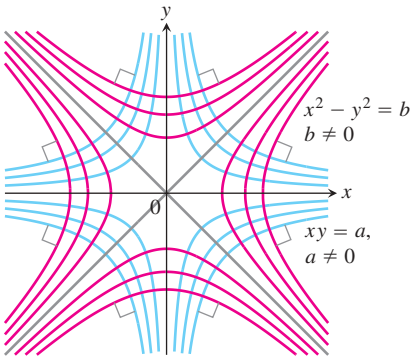

FIGURE 15.11 Each curve is orthogonal to every curve it meets in the other family (Example 2).

must be the negative reciprocal, or x/y. Therefore, the orthogonal trajectories must satisfy the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x}{y}.$$

This differential equation is separable and we solve it as in Section 6.5:

$$y\,dy = x\,dx \qquad \text{Separate variables.}$$

$$\int y\,dy = \int x\,dx \qquad \text{Integrate both sides.}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}y^2 = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + C$$

$$y^2 - x^2 = b, \tag{5}$$

where $b = 2C$ is an arbitrary constant. The orthogonal trajectories are the family of hyperbolas given by Equation (5) and sketched in Figure 15.11. ■

EXERCISES 15.3

1. **Coasting bicycle** A 66-kg cyclist on a 7-kg bicycle starts coasting on level ground at 9 m/sec. The k in Equation (1) is about 3.9 kg/sec.
   a. About how far will the cyclist coast before reaching a complete stop?
   b. How long will it take the cyclist's speed to drop to 1 m/sec?
2. **Coasting battleship** Suppose that an Iowa class battleship has mass around 51,000 metric tons (51,000,000 kg) and a k value in Equation (1) of about 59,000 kg/sec. Assume that the ship loses power when it is moving at a speed of 9 m/sec.
   a. About how far will the ship coast before it is dead in the water?
   b. About how long will it take the ship's speed to drop to 1 m/sec?
3. The data in Table 15.2 were collected with a motion detector and a CBL™ by Valerie Sharritts, a mathematics teacher at St. Francis DeSales High School in Columbus, Ohio. The table shows the distance s (meters) coasted on in-line skates in t sec by her daughter Ashley when she was 10 years old. Find a model for Ashley's position given by the data in Table 15.2 in the form of Equation (2). Her initial velocity was $v_0 = 2.75$ m/sec, her mass $m = 39.92$ kg (she weighed 88 lb), and her total coasting distance was 4.91 m.
4. **Coasting to a stop** Table 15.3 shows the distance s (meters) coasted on in-line skates in terms of time t (seconds) by Kelly Schmitzer. Find a model for her position in the form of Equation (2). Her initial velocity was $v_0 = 0.80$ m/sec, her mass $m = 49.90$ kg (110 lb), and her total coasting distance was 1.32 m.

TABLE 15.2 Ashley Sharritts skating data

t (sec)	s (m)	t (sec)	s (m)	t (sec)	s (m)
0	0	2.24	3.05	4.48	4.77
0.16	0.31	2.40	3.22	4.64	4.82
0.32	0.57	2.56	3.38	4.80	4.84
0.48	0.80	2.72	3.52	4.96	4.86
0.64	1.05	2.88	3.67	5.12	4.88
0.80	1.28	3.04	3.82	5.28	4.89
0.96	1.50	3.20	3.96	5.44	4.90
1.12	1.72	3.36	4.08	5.60	4.90
1.28	1.93	3.52	4.18	5.76	4.91
1.44	2.09	3.68	4.31	5.92	4.90
1.60	2.30	3.84	4.41	6.08	4.91
1.76	2.53	4.00	4.52	6.24	4.90
1.92	2.73	4.16	4.63	6.40	4.91
2.08	2.89	4.32	4.69	6.56	4.91

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TABLE 15.3 Kelly Schmitzer skating data

t (sec)	s (m)	t (sec)	s (m)	t (sec)	s (m)
0	0	1.5	0.89	3.1	1.30
0.1	0.07	1.7	0.97	3.3	1.31
0.3	0.22	1.9	1.05	3.5	1.32
0.5	0.36	2.1	1.11	3.7	1.32
0.7	0.49	2.3	1.17	3.9	1.32
0.9	0.60	2.5	1.22	4.1	1.32
1.1	0.71	2.7	1.25	4.3	1.32
1.3	0.81	2.9	1.28	4.5	1.32

In Exercises 5–10, find the orthogonal trajectories of the family of curves. Sketch several members of each family.

5. $y = mx$ **6.** $y = cx^2$

7. $kx^2 + y^2 = 1$ **8.** $2x^2 + y^2 = c^2$

9. $y = ce^{-x}$ **10.** $y = e^{kx}$

11. Show that the curves $2x^2 + 3y^2 = 5$ and $y^2 = x^3$ are orthogonal.

12. Find the family of solutions of the given differential equation and the family of orthogonal trajectories. Sketch both families.

a. $x\,dx + y\,dy = 0$ **b.** $x\,dy - 2y\,dx = 0$

13. Suppose a and b are positive numbers. Sketch the parabolas

$$y^2 = 4a^2 - 4ax \quad \text{and} \quad y^2 = 4b^2 + 4bx$$

in the same diagram. Show that they intersect at $\left(a - b, \pm 2\sqrt{ab}\right)$, and that each "$a$-parabola" is orthogonal to every "b-parabola."

15.4 Euler's Method

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

Leonhard Euler
(1703–1783)

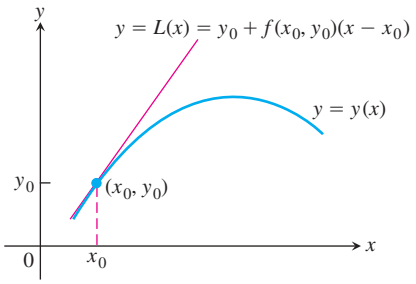

FIGURE 15.12 The linearization $L(x)$ of $y = y(x)$ at $x = x_0$.

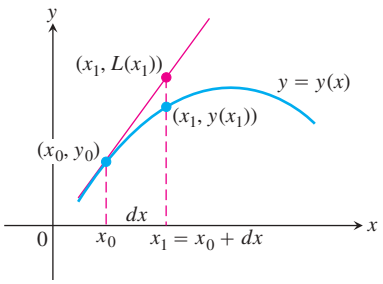

FIGURE 15.13 The first Euler step approximates $y(x_1)$ with $y_1 = L(x_1)$.

If we do not require or cannot immediately find an *exact* solution for an initial value problem $y' = f(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0$, we can often use a computer to generate a table of approximate numerical values of y for values of x in an appropriate interval. Such a table is called a **numerical solution** of the problem, and the method by which we generate the table is called a **numerical method**. Numerical methods are generally fast and accurate, and they are often the methods of choice when exact formulas are unnecessary, unavailable, or overly complicated. In this section, we study one such method, called *Euler's method*, upon which many other numerical methods are based.

Euler's Method

Given a differential equation $dy/dx = f(x, y)$ and an initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$, we can approximate the solution $y = y(x)$ by its linearization

$$L(x) = y(x_0) + y'(x_0)(x - x_0) \quad \text{or} \quad L(x) = y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0).$$

The function $L(x)$ gives a good approximation to the solution $y(x)$ in a short interval about x_0 (Figure 15.12). The basis of Euler's method is to patch together a string of linearizations to approximate the curve over a longer stretch. Here is how the method works.

We know the point (x_0, y_0) lies on the solution curve. Suppose that we specify a new value for the independent variable to be $x_1 = x_0 + dx$. (Recall that $dx = \Delta x$ in the definition of differentials.) If the increment dx is small, then

$$y_1 = L(x_1) = y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)\,dx$$

is a good approximation to the exact solution value $y = y(x_1)$. So from the point (x_0, y_0), which lies *exactly* on the solution curve, we have obtained the point (x_1, y_1), which lies very close to the point $(x_1, y(x_1))$ on the solution curve (Figure 15.13).

Using the point (x_1, y_1) and the slope $f(x_1, y_1)$ of the solution curve through (x_1, y_1), we take a second step. Setting $x_2 = x_1 + dx$, we use the linearization of the solution curve through (x_1, y_1) to calculate

$$y_2 = y_1 + f(x_1, y_1)\,dx.$$

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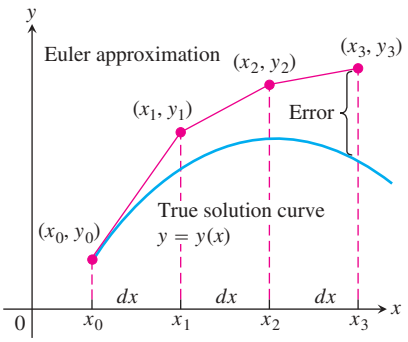

FIGURE 15.14 Three steps in the Euler approximation to the solution of the initial value problem $y' = f(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0$. As we take more steps, the errors involved usually accumulate, but not in the exaggerated way shown here.

This gives the next approximation (x_2, y_2) to values along the solution curve $y = y(x)$ (Figure 15.14). Continuing in this fashion, we take a third step from the point (x_2, y_2) with slope $f(x_2, y_2)$ to obtain the third approximation

$$y_3 = y_2 + f(x_2, y_2)\, dx,$$

and so on. We are literally building an approximation to one of the solutions by following the direction of the slope field of the differential equation.

The steps in Figure 15.14 are drawn large to illustrate the construction process, so the approximation looks crude. In practice, dx would be small enough to make the red curve hug the blue one and give a good approximation throughout.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the first three approximations y_1, y_2, y_3 using Euler's method for the initial value problem

$$y' = 1 + y, \qquad y(0) = 1,$$

starting at $x_0 = 0$ with $dx = 0.1$.

Solution We have $x_0 = 0, y_0 = 1, x_1 = x_0 + dx = 0.1, x_2 = x_0 + 2dx = 0.2,$ and $x_3 = x_0 + 3\,dx = 0.3$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\textit{First:} \quad y_1 &= y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)\, dx \\
&= y_0 + (1 + y_0)\, dx \\
&= 1 + (1 + 1)(0.1) = 1.2 \\
\textit{Second:} \quad y_2 &= y_1 + f(x_1, y_1)\, dx \\
&= y_1 + (1 + y_1)\, dx \\
&= 1.2 + (1 + 1.2)(0.1) = 1.42 \\
\textit{Third:} \quad y_3 &= y_2 + f(x_2, y_2)\, dx \\
&= y_2 + (1 + y_2)\, dx \\
&= 1.42 + (1 + 1.42)(0.1) = 1.662
\end{aligned}$$

■

The step-by-step process used in Example 1 can be continued easily. Using equally spaced values for the independent variable in the table and generating n of them, set

$$\begin{aligned}
x_1 &= x_0 + dx \\
x_2 &= x_1 + dx \\
&\vdots \\
x_n &= x_{n-1} + dx.
\end{aligned}$$

Then calculate the approximations to the solution,

$$\begin{aligned}
y_1 &= y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)\, dx \\
y_2 &= y_1 + f(x_1, y_1)\, dx \\
&\vdots \\
y_n &= y_{n-1} + f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\, dx.
\end{aligned}$$

The number of steps n can be as large as we like, but errors can accumulate if n is too large.

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Euler's method is easy to implement on a computer or calculator. A computer program generates a table of numerical solutions to an initial value problem, allowing us to input x_0 and y_0, the number of steps n, and the step size dx. It then calculates the approximate solution values $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$ in iterative fashion, as just described.

Solving the separable equation in Example 1, we find that the exact solution to the initial value problem is $y = 2e^x - 1$. We use this information in Example 2.

EXAMPLE 2 Use Euler's method to solve

$$y' = 1 + y, \qquad y(0) = 1,$$

on the interval $0 \le x \le 1$, starting at $x_0 = 0$ and taking **(a)** $dx = 0.1$, **(b)** $dx = 0.05$. Compare the approximations with the values of the exact solution $y = 2e^x - 1$.

Solution

(a) We used a computer to generate the approximate values in Table 15.4. The "error" column is obtained by subtracting the unrounded Euler values from the unrounded values found using the exact solution. All entries are then rounded to four decimal places.

TABLE 15.4 Euler solution of $y' = 1 + y$, $y(0) = 1$, step size $dx = 0.1$

x	y (Euler)	y (exact)	Error
0	1	1	0
0.1	1.2	1.2103	0.0103
0.2	1.42	1.4428	0.0228
0.3	1.662	1.6997	0.0377
0.4	1.9282	1.9836	0.0554
0.5	2.2210	2.2974	0.0764
0.6	2.5431	2.6442	0.1011
0.7	2.8974	3.0275	0.1301
0.8	3.2872	3.4511	0.1639
0.9	3.7159	3.9192	0.2033
1.0	4.1875	4.4366	0.2491

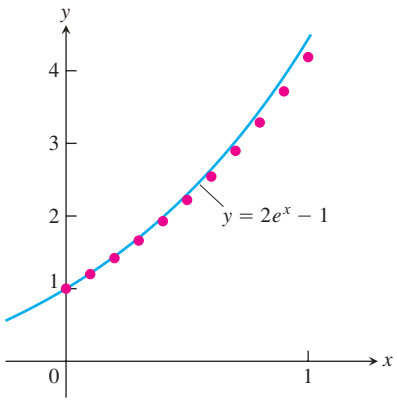

FIGURE 15.15 The graph of $y = 2e^x - 1$ superimposed on a scatterplot of the Euler approximations shown in Table 15.4 (Example 2).

By the time we reach $x = 1$ (after 10 steps), the error is about 5.6% of the exact solution. A plot of the exact solution curve with the scatterplot of Euler solution points from Table 15.4 is shown in Figure 15.15.

(b) One way to try to reduce the error is to decrease the step size. Table 15.5 shows the results and their comparisons with the exact solutions when we decrease the step size to 0.05, doubling the number of steps to 20. As in Table 15.4, all computations are performed before rounding. This time when we reach $x = 1$, the relative error is only about 2.9%.

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TABLE 15.5 Euler solution of $y' = 1 + y$, $y(0) = 1$, step size $dx = 0.05$

x	y (Euler)	y (exact)	Error
0	1	1	0
0.05	1.1	1.1025	0.0025
0.10	1.205	1.2103	0.0053
0.15	1.3153	1.3237	0.0084
0.20	1.4310	1.4428	0.0118
0.25	1.5526	1.5681	0.0155
0.30	1.6802	1.6997	0.0195
0.35	1.8142	1.8381	0.0239
0.40	1.9549	1.9836	0.0287
0.45	2.1027	2.1366	0.0340
0.50	2.2578	2.2974	0.0397
0.55	2.4207	2.4665	0.0458
0.60	2.5917	2.6442	0.0525
0.65	2.7713	2.8311	0.0598
0.70	2.9599	3.0275	0.0676
0.75	3.1579	3.2340	0.0761
0.80	3.3657	3.4511	0.0853
0.85	3.5840	3.6793	0.0953
0.90	3.8132	3.9192	0.1060
0.95	4.0539	4.1714	0.1175
1.00	4.3066	4.4366	0.1300

It might be tempting to reduce the step size even further in Example 2 to obtain greater accuracy. Each additional calculation, however, not only requires additional computer time but more importantly adds to the buildup of round-off errors due to the approximate representations of numbers inside the computer.

The analysis of error and the investigation of methods to reduce it when making numerical calculations are important but are appropriate for a more advanced course. There are numerical methods more accurate than Euler's method, as you can see in a further study of differential equations. We study one improvement here.

Improved Euler's Method

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

Carl Runge
(1856–1927)

We can improve on Euler's method by taking an average of two slopes. We first estimate y_n as in the original Euler method, but denote it by z_n. We then take the average of $f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ and $f(x_n, z_n)$ in place of $f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ in the next step. Thus, we calculate the next approximation y_n using

$$z_n = y_{n-1} + f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\,dx$$

$$y_n = y_{n-1} + \left[\frac{f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}) + f(x_n, z_n)}{2}\right] dx.$$

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EXAMPLE 3 Use the improved Euler's method to solve

$$y' = 1 + y, \qquad y(0) = 1,$$

on the interval $0 \le x \le 1$, starting at $x_0 = 0$ and taking $dx = 0.1$. Compare the approximations with the values of the exact solution $y = 2e^x - 1$.

Solution We used a computer to generate the approximate values in Table 15.6. The "error" column is obtained by subtracting the unrounded improved Euler values from the unrounded values found using the exact solution. All entries are then rounded to four decimal places.

TABLE 15.6 Improved Euler solution of $y' = 1 + y$, $y(0) = 1$, step size $dx = 0.1$

x	y (improved Euler)	y (exact)	Error
0	1	1	0
0.1	1.21	1.2103	0.0003
0.2	1.4421	1.4428	0.0008
0.3	1.6985	1.6997	0.0013
0.4	1.9818	1.9836	0.0018
0.5	2.2949	2.2974	0.0025
0.6	2.6409	2.6442	0.0034
0.7	3.0231	3.0275	0.0044
0.8	3.4456	3.4511	0.0055
0.9	3.9124	3.9192	0.0068
1.0	4.4282	4.4366	0.0084

By the time we reach $x = 1$ (after 10 steps), the relative error is about 0.19%. ■

By comparing Tables 15.4 and 15.6, we see that the improved Euler's method is considerably more accurate than the regular Euler's method, at least for the initial value problem $y' = 1 + y$, $y(0) = 1$.

EXERCISES 15.4

In Exercises 1–6, use Euler's method to calculate the first three approximations to the given initial value problem for the specified increment size. Calculate the exact solution and investigate the accuracy of your approximations. Round your results to four decimal places.

1. $y' = 1 - \dfrac{y}{x}, \quad y(2) = -1, \quad dx = 0.5$

2. $y' = x(1 - y), \quad y(1) = 0, \quad dx = 0.2$

3. $y' = 2xy + 2y, \quad y(0) = 3, \quad dx = 0.2$

4. $y' = y^2(1 + 2x), \quad y(-1) = 1, \quad dx = 0.5$

T **5.** $y' = 2xe^{x^2}, \quad y(0) = 2, \quad dx = 0.1$

T **6.** $y' = y + e^x - 2, \quad y(0) = 2, \quad dx = 0.5$

7. Use the Euler method with $dx = 0.2$ to estimate $y(1)$ if $y' = y$ and $y(0) = 1$. What is the exact value of $y(1)$?

8. Use the Euler method with $dx = 0.2$ to estimate $y(2)$ if $y' = y/x$ and $y(1) = 2$. What is the exact value of $y(2)$?

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T **9.** Use the Euler method with $dx = 0.5$ to estimate $y(5)$ if $y' = y^2/\sqrt{x}$ and $y(1) = -1$. What is the exact value of $y(5)$?

T **10.** Use the Euler method with $dx = 1/3$ to estimate $y(2)$ if $y' = y - e^{2x}$ and $y(0) = 1$. What is the exact value of $y(2)$?

In Exercises 11 and 12, use the improved Euler's method to calculate the first three approximations to the given initial value problem. Compare the approximations with the values of the exact solution.

11. $y' = 2y(x + 1), \quad y(0) = 3, \quad dx = 0.2$
(See Exercise 3 for the exact solution.)

12. $y' = x(1 - y), \quad y(1) = 0, \quad dx = 0.2$
(See Exercise 2 for the exact solution.)

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

In Exercises 13–16, use Euler's method with the specified step size to estimate the value of the solution at the given point x^*. Find the value of the exact solution at x^*.

13. $y' = 2xe^{x^2}, \quad y(0) = 2, \quad dx = 0.1, \quad x^* = 1$

14. $y' = y + e^x - 2, \quad y(0) = 2, \quad dx = 0.5, \quad x^* = 2$

15. $y' = \sqrt{x}/y, \quad y > 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad dx = 0.1, \quad x^* = 1$

16. $y' = 1 + y^2, \quad y(0) = 0, \quad dx = 0.1, \quad x^* = 1$

In Exercises 17 and 18, **(a)** find the exact solution of the initial value problem. Then compare the accuracy of the approximation with $y(x^*)$ using Euler's method starting at x_0 with step size **(b)** 0.2, **(c)** 0.1, and **(d)** 0.05.

17. $y' = 2y^2(x - 1), \quad y(2) = -1/2, \quad x_0 = 2, \quad x^* = 3$

18. $y' = y - 1, \quad y(0) = 3, \quad x_0 = 0, \quad x^* = 1$

In Exercises 19 and 20, compare the accuracy of the approximation with $y(x^*)$ using the improved Euler's method starting at x_0 with step size

a. 0.2 **b.** 0.1 **c.** 0.05

d. Describe what happens to the error as the step size decreases.

19. $y' = 2y^2(x - 1), \quad y(2) = -1/2, \quad x_0 = 2, \quad x^* = 3$
(See Exercise 17 for the exact solution.)

20. $y' = y - 1, \quad y(0) = 3, \quad x_0 = 0, \quad x^* = 1$
(See Exercise 18 for the exact solution.)

Use a CAS to explore graphically each of the differential equations in Exercises 21–24. Perform the following steps to help with your explorations.

a. Plot a slope field for the differential equation in the given xy-window.

b. Find the general solution of the differential equation using your CAS DE solver.

c. Graph the solutions for the values of the arbitrary constant $C = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2$ superimposed on your slope field plot.

d. Find and graph the solution that satisfies the specified initial condition over the interval $[0, b]$.

e. Find the Euler numerical approximation to the solution of the initial value problem with 4 subintervals of the x-interval and plot the Euler approximation superimposed on the graph produced in part (d).

f. Repeat part (e) for 8, 16, and 32 subintervals. Plot these three Euler approximations superimposed on the graph from part (e).

g. Find the error (y(exact) $-$ y(Euler)) at the specified point $x = b$ for each of your four Euler approximations. Discuss the improvement in the percentage error.

21. $y' = x + y, \quad y(0) = -7/10; \quad -4 \le x \le 4, \quad -4 \le y \le 4; \quad b = 1$

22. $y' = -x/y, \quad y(0) = 2; \quad -3 \le x \le 3, \quad -3 \le y \le 3; \quad b = 2$

23. A logistic equation $y' = y(2 - y), \quad y(0) = 1/2; \quad 0 \le x \le 4, \quad 0 \le y \le 3; \quad b = 3$

24. $y' = (\sin x)(\sin y), \quad y(0) = 2; \quad -6 \le x \le 6, \quad -6 \le y \le 6; \quad b = 3\pi/2$

15.5 Graphical Solutions of Autonomous Equations

In Chapter 4 we learned that the sign of the first derivative tells where the graph of a function is increasing and where it is decreasing. The sign of the second derivative tells the concavity of the graph. We can build on our knowledge of how derivatives determine the shape of a graph to solve differential equations graphically. The starting ideas for doing so are the notions of *phase line* and *equilibrium value*. We arrive at these notions by investigating what happens when the derivative of a differentiable function is zero from a point of view different from that studied in Chapter 4.

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Equilibrium Values and Phase Lines

When we differentiate implicitly the equation

$$\frac{1}{5}\ln(5y - 15) = x + 1$$

we obtain

$$\frac{1}{5}\left(\frac{5}{5y - 15}\right)\frac{dy}{dx} = 1.$$

Solving for $y' = dy/dx$ we find $y' = 5y - 15 = 5(y - 3)$. In this case the derivative y' is a function of y only (the dependent variable) and is zero when $y = 3$.

A differential equation for which dy/dx is a function of y only is called an **autonomous** differential equation. Let's investigate what happens when the derivative in an autonomous equation equals zero. We assume any derivatives are continuous.

DEFINITION If $dy/dx = g(y)$ is an autonomous differential equation, then the values of y for which $dy/dx = 0$ are called **equilibrium values** or **rest points**.

Thus, equilibrium values are those at which no change occurs in the dependent variable, so y is at *rest*. The emphasis is on the value of y where $dy/dx = 0$, not the value of x, as we studied in Chapter 4. For example, the equilibrium values for the autonomous differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = (y + 1)(y - 2)$$

are $y = -1$ and $y = 2$.

To construct a graphical solution to an autonomous differential equation, we first make a **phase line** for the equation, a plot on the y-axis that shows the equation's equilibrium values along with the intervals where dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2 are positive and negative. Then we know where the solutions are increasing and decreasing, and the concavity of the solution curves. These are the essential features we found in Section 4.4, so we can determine the shapes of the solution curves without having to find formulas for them.

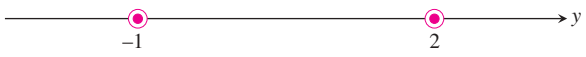
EXAMPLE 1 Draw a phase line for the equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = (y + 1)(y - 2)$$

and use it to sketch solutions to the equation.

Solution

1. *Draw a number line for y and mark the equilibrium values* $y = -1$ *and* $y = 2$, *where* $dy/dx = 0$.



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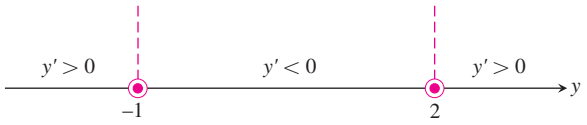
2. *Identify and label the intervals where* $y' > 0$ *and* $y' < 0$. This step resembles what we did in Section 4.3, only now we are marking the y-axis instead of the x-axis.



We can encapsulate the information about the sign of y' on the phase line itself. Since $y' > 0$ on the interval to the left of $y = -1$, a solution of the differential equation with a y-value less than -1 will increase from there toward $y = -1$. We display this information by drawing an arrow on the interval pointing to -1.

Similarly, $y' < 0$ between $y = -1$ and $y = 2$, so any solution with a value in this interval will decrease toward $y = -1$.

For $y > 2$, we have $y' > 0$, so a solution with a y-value greater than 2 will increase from there without bound.

In short, solution curves below the horizontal line $y = -1$ in the xy-plane rise toward $y = -1$. Solution curves between the lines $y = -1$ and $y = 2$ fall away from $y = 2$ toward $y = -1$. Solution curves above $y = 2$ rise away from $y = 2$ and keep going up.

3. *Calculate* y'' *and mark the intervals where* $y'' > 0$ *and* $y'' < 0$. To find y'', we differentiate y' *with respect to* x, using implicit differentiation.

$$y' = (y + 1)(y - 2) = y^2 - y - 2 \qquad \text{Formula for } y' \ldots$$

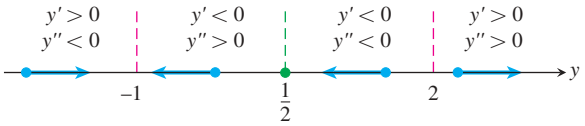
$$y'' = \frac{d}{dx}(y') = \frac{d}{dx}(y^2 - y - 2)$$

$$= 2yy' - y' \qquad \text{differentiated implicitly with respect to } x.$$

$$= (2y - 1)y'$$

$$= (2y - 1)(y + 1)(y - 2).$$

From this formula, we see that y'' changes sign at $y = -1, y = 1/2$, and $y = 2$. We add the sign information to the phase line.



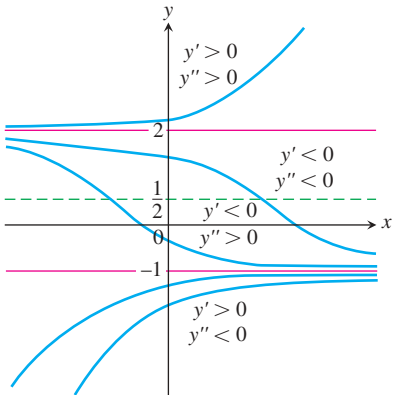


FIGURE 15.16 Graphical solutions from Example 1 include the horizontal lines $y = -1$ and $y = 2$ through the equilibrium values. From Theorem 1, no two solution curves will ever cross or touch each other.

4. *Sketch an assortment of solution curves in the xy-plane.* The horizontal lines $y = -1, y = 1/2$, and $y = 2$ partition the plane into horizontal bands in which we know the signs of y' and y''. In each band, this information tells us whether the solution curves rise or fall and how they bend as x increases (Figure 15.16).

The "equilibrium lines" $y = -1$ and $y = 2$ are also solution curves. (The constant functions $y = -1$ and $y = 2$ satisfy the differential equation.) Solution curves

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that cross the line $y = 1/2$ have an inflection point there. The concavity changes from concave down (above the line) to concave up (below the line).

As predicted in Step 2, solutions in the middle and lower bands approach the equilibrium value $y = -1$ as x increases. Solutions in the upper band rise steadily away from the value $y = 2$. ■

Stable and Unstable Equilibria

Look at Figure 15.16 once more, in particular at the behavior of the solution curves near the equilibrium values. Once a solution curve has a value near $y = -1$, it tends steadily toward that value; $y = -1$ is a **stable equilibrium**. The behavior near $y = 2$ is just the opposite: all solutions except the equilibrium solution $y = 2$ itself move *away* from it as x increases. We call $y = 2$ an **unstable equilibrium**. If the solution is *at* that value, it stays, but if it is off by any amount, no matter how small, it moves away. (Sometimes an equilibrium value is unstable because a solution moves away from it only on one side of the point.)

Now that we know what to look for, we can already see this behavior on the initial phase line. The arrows lead away from $y = 2$ and, once to the left of $y = 2$, toward $y = -1$.

We now present several applied examples for which we can sketch a family of solution curves to the differential equation models using the method in Example 1.

In Section 6.5 we solved analytically the differential equation

$$\frac{dH}{dt} = -k(H - H_S), \qquad k > 0$$

modeling Newton's law of cooling. Here H is the temperature (amount of heat) of an object at time t and H_S is the constant temperature of the surrounding medium. Our first example uses a phase line analysis to understand the graphical behavior of this temperature model over time.

EXAMPLE 2 What happens to the temperature of the soup when a cup of hot soup is placed on a table in a room? We know the soup cools down, but what does a typical temperature curve look like as a function of time?

Solution Suppose that the surrounding medium has a constant Celsius temperature of 15°C. We can then express the difference in temperature as $H(t) - 15$. Assuming H is a differentiable function of time t, by Newton's law of cooling, there is a constant of proportionality $k > 0$ such that

$$\frac{dH}{dt} = -k(H - 15) \tag{1}$$

(*minus* k to give a negative derivative when $H > 15$).

Since $dH/dt = 0$ at $H = 15$, the temperature 15°C is an equilibrium value. If $H > 15$, Equation (1) tells us that $(H - 15) > 0$ and $dH/dt < 0$. If the object is hotter than the room, it will get cooler. Similarly, if $H < 15$, then $(H - 15) < 0$ and $dH/dt > 0$. An object cooler than the room will warm up. Thus, the behavior described by Equation (1) agrees with our intuition of how temperature should behave. These observations are captured in the initial phase line diagram in Figure 15.17. The value $H = 15$ is a stable equilibrium.

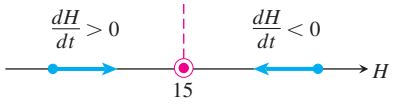

FIGURE 15.17 First step in constructing the phase line for Newton's law of cooling in Example 2. The temperature tends towards the equilibrium (surrounding-medium) value in the long run.

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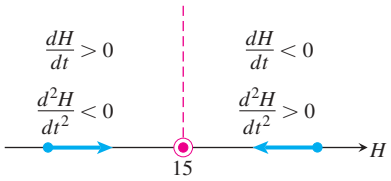

FIGURE 15.18 The complete phase line for Newton's law of cooling (Example 2).

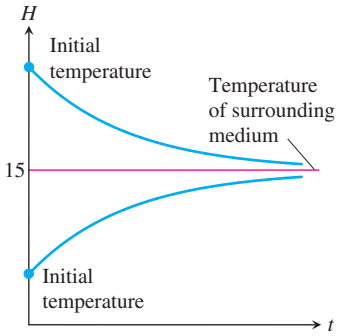

FIGURE 15.19 Temperature versus time. Regardless of initial temperature, the object's temperature $H(t)$ tends toward 15°C, the temperature of the surrounding medium.

We determine the concavity of the solution curves by differentiating both sides of Equation (1) with respect to t:

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{dH}{dt}\right) = \frac{d}{dt}(-k(H - 15))$$

$$\frac{d^2H}{dt^2} = -k\frac{dH}{dt}.$$

Since $-k$ is negative, we see that d^2H/dt^2 is positive when $dH/dt < 0$ and negative when $dH/dt > 0$. Figure 15.18 adds this information to the phase line.

The completed phase line shows that if the temperature of the object is above the equilibrium value of 15°C, the graph of $H(t)$ will be decreasing and concave upward. If the temperature is below 15°C (the temperature of the surrounding medium), the graph of $H(t)$ will be increasing and concave downward. We use this information to sketch typical solution curves (Figure 15.19).

From the upper solution curve in Figure 15.19, we see that as the object cools down, the rate at which it cools slows down because dH/dt approaches zero. This observation is implicit in Newton's law of cooling and contained in the differential equation, but the flattening of the graph as time advances gives an immediate visual representation of the phenomenon. The ability to discern physical behavior from graphs is a powerful tool in understanding real-world systems. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Galileo and Newton both observed that the rate of change in momentum encountered by a moving object is equal to the net force applied to it. In mathematical terms,

$$F = \frac{d}{dt}(mv) \tag{2}$$

where F is the force and m and v the object's mass and velocity. If m varies with time, as it will if the object is a rocket burning fuel, the right-hand side of Equation (2) expands to

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} + v\frac{dm}{dt}$$

using the Product Rule. In many situations, however, m is constant, $dm/dt = 0$, and Equation (2) takes the simpler form

$$F = m\frac{dv}{dt} \quad \text{or} \quad F = ma, \tag{3}$$

known as *Newton's second law of motion* (see Section 15.3).

In free fall, the constant acceleration due to gravity is denoted by g and the one force acting downward on the falling body is

$$F_p = mg,$$

the propulsion due to gravity. If, however, we think of a real body falling through the air—say, a penny from a great height or a parachutist from an even greater height—we know that at some point air resistance is a factor in the speed of the fall. A more realistic model of free fall would include air resistance, shown as a force F_r in the schematic diagram in Figure 15.20.

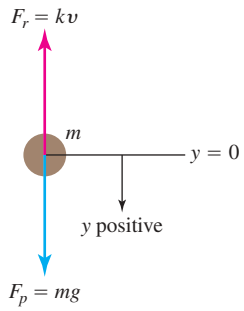

FIGURE 15.20 An object falling under the influence of gravity with a resistive force assumed to be proportional to the velocity.

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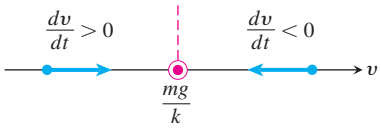

FIGURE 15.21 Initial phase line for Example 3.

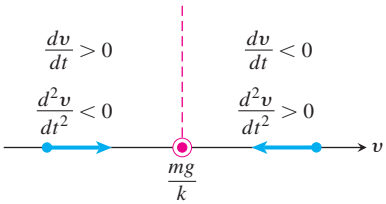

FIGURE 15.22 The completed phase line for Example 3.

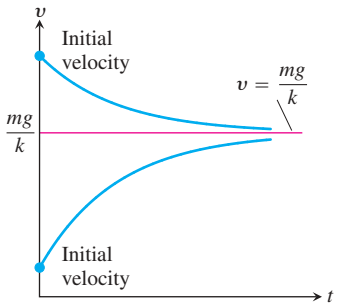

FIGURE 15.23 Typical velocity curves in Example 3. The value $v = mg/k$ is the terminal velocity.

For low speeds well below the speed of sound, physical experiments have shown that F_r is approximately proportional to the body's velocity. The net force on the falling body is therefore

$$F = F_p - F_r,$$

giving

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} = mg - kv$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = g - \frac{k}{m}v. \tag{4}$$

We can use a phase line to analyze the velocity functions that solve this differential equation.

The equilibrium point, obtained by setting the right-hand side of Equation (4) equal to zero, is

$$v = \frac{mg}{k}.$$

If the body is initially moving faster than this, dv/dt is negative and the body slows down. If the body is moving at a velocity below mg/k, then $dv/dt > 0$ and the body speeds up. These observations are captured in the initial phase line diagram in Figure 15.21.

We determine the concavity of the solution curves by differentiating both sides of Equation (4) with respect to t:

$$\frac{d^2v}{dt^2} = \frac{d}{dt}\left(g - \frac{k}{m}v\right) = -\frac{k}{m}\frac{dv}{dt}.$$

We see that $d^2v/dt^2 < 0$ when $v < mg/k$ and $d^2v/dt^2 > 0$ when $v > mg/k$. Figure 15.22 adds this information to the phase line. Notice the similarity to the phase line for Newton's law of cooling (Figure 15.18). The solution curves are similar as well (Figure 15.23).

Figure 15.23 shows two typical solution curves. Regardless of the initial velocity, we see the body's velocity tending toward the limiting value $v = mg/k$. This value, a stable equilibrium point, is called the body's **terminal velocity**. Skydivers can vary their terminal velocity from 95 mph to 180 mph by changing the amount of body area opposing the fall. ■

EXAMPLE 4 In Section 15.3 we examined population growth using the model of exponential change. That is, if P represents the number of individuals and we neglect departures and arrivals, then

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = kP, \tag{5}$$

where $k > 0$ is the birthrate minus the death rate per individual per unit time.

Because the natural environment has only a limited number of resources to sustain life, it is reasonable to assume that only a maximum population M can be accommodated. As the population approaches this **limiting population** or **carrying capacity**, resources become less abundant and the growth rate k decreases. A simple relationship exhibiting this behavior is

$$k = r(M - P),$$

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where $r > 0$ is a constant. Notice that k decreases as P increases toward M and that k is negative if P is greater than M. Substituting $r(M - P)$ for k in Equation (5) gives the differential equation

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = r(M - P)P = rMP - rP^2. \tag{6}$$

The model given by Equation (6) is referred to as **logistic growth**.

We can forecast the behavior of the population over time by analyzing the phase line for Equation (6). The equilibrium values are $P = M$ and $P = 0$, and we can see that $dP/dt > 0$ if $0 < P < M$ and $dP/dt < 0$ if $P > M$. These observations are recorded on the phase line in Figure 15.24.

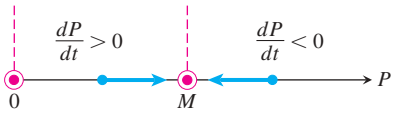

FIGURE 15.24 The initial phase line for Equation 6.

We determine the concavity of the population curves by differentiating both sides of Equation (6) with respect to t:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2P}{dt^2} &= \frac{d}{dt}(rMP - rP^2)\\ &= rM\frac{dP}{dt} - 2rP\frac{dP}{dt}\\ &= r(M - 2P)\frac{dP}{dt}.\end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

If $P = M/2$, then $d^2P/dt^2 = 0$. If $P < M/2$, then $(M - 2P)$ and dP/dt are positive and $d^2P/dt^2 > 0$. If $M/2 < P < M$, then $(M - 2P) < 0$, $dP/dt > 0$, and $d^2P/dt^2 < 0$. If $P > M$, then $(M - 2P)$ and dP/dt are both negative and $d^2P/dt^2 > 0$. We add this information to the phase line (Figure 15.25).

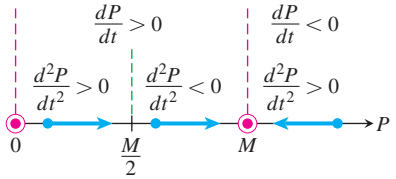

FIGURE 15.25 The completed phase line for logistic growth (Equation 6).

The lines $P = M/2$ and $P = M$ divide the first quadrant of the tP-plane into horizontal bands in which we know the signs of both dP/dt and d^2P/dt^2. In each band, we know how the solution curves rise and fall, and how they bend as time passes. The equilibrium lines $P = 0$ and $P = M$ are both population curves. Population curves crossing the line $P = M/2$ have an inflection point there, giving them a **sigmoid** shape (curved in two directions like a letter S). Figure 15.26 displays typical population curves. ■

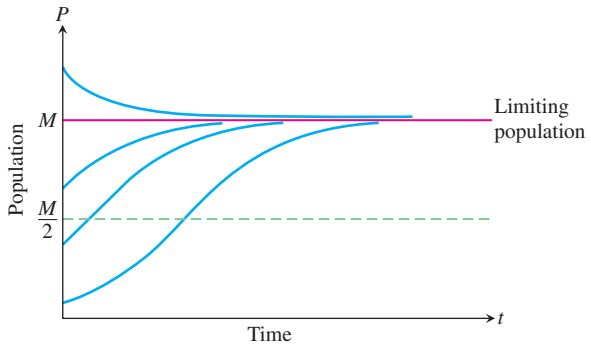

FIGURE 15.26 Population curves in Example 4.

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EXERCISES 15.5

In Exercises 1–8,

a. Identify the equilibrium values. Which are stable and which are unstable?

b. Construct a phase line. Identify the signs of y' and y''.

c. Sketch several solution curves.

1. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = (y + 2)(y - 3)$

2. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = y^2 - 4$

3. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = y^3 - y$

4. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = y^2 - 2y$

5. $y' = \sqrt{y}, \quad y > 0$

6. $y' = y - \sqrt{y}, \quad y > 0$

7. $y' = (y - 1)(y - 2)(y - 3)$

8. $y' = y^3 - y^2$

The autonomous differential equations in Exercises 9–12 represent models for population growth. For each exercise, use a phase line analysis to sketch solution curves for $P(t)$, selecting different starting values $P(0)$ (as in Example 4). Which equilibria are stable, and which are unstable?

9. $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = 1 - 2P$

10. $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = P(1 - 2P)$

11. $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = 2P(P - 3)$

12. $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = 3P(1 - P)\left(P - \dfrac{1}{2}\right)$

13. Catastrophic continuation of Example 4 Suppose that a healthy population of some species is growing in a limited environment and that the current population P_0 is fairly close to the carrying capacity M_0. You might imagine a population of fish living in a freshwater lake in a wilderness area. Suddenly a catastrophe such as the Mount St. Helens volcanic eruption contaminates the lake and destroys a significant part of the food and oxygen on which the fish depend. The result is a new environment with a carrying capacity M_1 considerably less than M_0 and, in fact, less than the current population P_0. Starting at some time before the catastrophe, sketch a "before-and-after" curve that shows how the fish population responds to the change in environment.

14. Controlling a population The fish and game department in a certain state is planning to issue hunting permits to control the deer population (one deer per permit). It is known that if the deer population falls below a certain level m, the deer will become extinct. It is also known that if the deer population rises above the carrying capacity M, the population will decrease back to M through disease and malnutrition.

a. Discuss the reasonableness of the following model for the growth rate of the deer population as a function of time:

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = rP(M - P)(P - m),$$

where P is the population of the deer and r is a positive constant of proportionality. Include a phase line.

b. Explain how this model differs from the logistic model $dP/dt = rP(M - P)$. Is it better or worse than the logistic model?

c. Show that if $P > M$ for all t, then $\lim_{t\to\infty} P(t) = M$.

d. What happens if $P < m$ for all t?

e. Discuss the solutions to the differential equation. What are the equilibrium points of the model? Explain the dependence of the steady-state value of P on the initial values of P. About how many permits should be issued?

15. Skydiving If a body of mass m falling from rest under the action of gravity encounters an air resistance proportional to the square of velocity, then the body's velocity t seconds into the fall satisfies the equation.

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} = mg - kv^2, \qquad k > 0$$

where k is a constant that depends on the body's aerodynamic properties and the density of the air. (We assume that the fall is too short to be affected by changes in the air's density.)

a. Draw a phase line for the equation.

b. Sketch a typical velocity curve.

c. For a 160-lb skydiver ($mg = 160$) and with time in seconds and distance in feet, a typical value of k is 0.005. What is the diver's terminal velocity?

16. Resistance proportional to $\sqrt{v}$ A body of mass m is projected vertically downward with initial velocity v_0. Assume that the resisting force is proportional to the square root of the velocity and find the terminal velocity from a graphical analysis.

17. Sailing A sailboat is running along a straight course with the wind providing a constant forward force of 50 lb. The only other force acting on the boat is resistance as the boat moves through the water. The resisting force is numerically equal to five times the boat's speed, and the initial velocity is 1 ft/sec. What is the maximum velocity in feet per second of the boat under this wind?

18. The spread of information Sociologists recognize a phenomenon called *social diffusion*, which is the spreading of a piece of information, technological innovation, or cultural fad among a population. The members of the population can be divided into two classes: those who have the information and those who do not. In a fixed population whose size is known, it is reasonable to assume that the rate of diffusion is proportional to the number who have the information times the number yet to receive it. If X denotes the number of individuals who have the information in a population of N people, then a mathematical model for social diffusion is given by

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = kX(N - X),$$

where t represents time in days and k is a positive constant.

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a. Discuss the reasonableness of the model.

b. Construct a phase line identifying the signs of X' and X''.

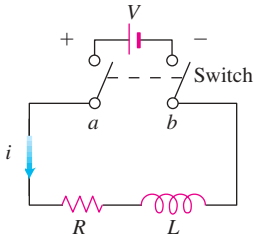
c. Sketch representative solution curves.

d. Predict the value of X for which the information is spreading most rapidly. How many people eventually receive the information?

19. Current in an *RL*-circuit The accompanying diagram represents an electrical circuit whose total resistance is a constant R ohms and whose self-inductance, shown as a coil, is L henries, also a constant. There is a switch whose terminals at a and b can be closed to connect a constant electrical source of V volts. From Section 15.2, we have

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = V,$$

where i is the intensity of the current in amperes and t is the time in seconds.



Use a phase line analysis to sketch the solution curve assuming that the switch in the RL-circuit is closed at time $t = 0$. What happens to the current as $t \to \infty$? This value is called the *steady-state solution.*

20. A pearl in shampoo Suppose that a pearl is sinking in a thick fluid, like shampoo, subject to a frictional force opposing its fall and proportional to its velocity. Suppose that there is also a resistive buoyant force exerted by the shampoo. According to *Archimedes' principle*, the buoyant force equals the weight of the fluid displaced by the pearl. Using m for the mass of the pearl and P for the mass of the shampoo displaced by the pearl as it descends, complete the following steps.

a. Draw a schematic diagram showing the forces acting on the pearl as it sinks, as in Figure 15.20.

b. Using $v(t)$ for the pearl's velocity as a function of time t, write a differential equation modeling the velocity of the pearl as a falling body.

c. Construct a phase line displaying the signs of v' and v''.

d. Sketch typical solution curves.

e. What is the terminal velocity of the pearl?

15.6 Systems of Equations and Phase Planes

In some situations we are led to consider not one, but several first-order differential equations. Such a collection is called a **system** of differential equations. In this section we present an approach to understanding systems through a graphical procedure known as a *phase-plane analysis*. We present this analysis in the context of modeling the populations of trout and bass living in a common pond.

Phase Planes

A general system of two first-order differential equations may take the form

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = F(x, y),$$
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = G(x, y).$$

Such a system of equations is called **autonomous** because dx/dt and dy/dt do not depend on the independent variable time t, but only on the dependent variables x and y. A **solution**

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of such a system consists of a pair of functions $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ that satisfies both of the differential equations simultaneously for every t over some time interval (finite or infinite).

We cannot look at just one of these equations in isolation to find solutions $x(t)$ or $y(t)$ since each derivative depends on both x and y. To gain insight into the solutions, we look at both dependent variables together by plotting the points $(x(t), y(t))$ in the xy-plane starting at some specified point. Therefore the solution functions are considered as parametric equations (with parameter t), and a corresponding solution curve through the specified point is called a **trajectory** of the system. The xy-plane itself, in which these trajectories reside, is referred to as the **phase plane**. Thus we consider both solutions together and study the behavior of all the solution trajectories in the phase plane. It can be proved that two trajectories can never cross or touch each other.

A Competitive-Hunter Model

Imagine two species of fish, say trout and bass, competing for the same limited resources in a certain pond. We let $x(t)$ represent the number of trout and $y(t)$ the number of bass living in the pond at time t. In reality $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ are always integer valued, but we will approximate them with real-valued differentiable functions. This allows us to apply the methods of differential equations.

Several factors affect the rates of change of these populations. As time passes, each species breeds, so we assume its population increases proportionally to its size. Taken by itself, this would lead to exponential growth in each of the two populations. However, there is a countervailing effect from the fact that the two species are in competition. A large number of bass tends to cause a decrease in the number of trout, and vice-versa. Our model takes the size of this effect to be proportional to the frequency with which the two species interact, which in turn is proportional to xy, the product of the two populations. These considerations lead to the following model for the growth of the trout and bass in the pond:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = (a - by)x, \tag{1a}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = (m - nx)y. \tag{1b}$$

Here $x(t)$ represents the trout population, $y(t)$ the bass population, and a, b, m, n are positive constants. A solution of this system then consists of a pair of functions $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ that gives the population of each fish species at time t. Each equation in (1) contains both of the unknown functions x and y, so we are unable to solve them individually. Instead, we will use a graphical analysis to study the solution trajectories of this **competitive-hunter model**.

We now examine the nature of the phase plane in the trout-bass population model. We will be interested in the 1st quadrant of the xy-plane, where $x \geq 0$ and $y \geq 0$, since populations cannot be negative. First, we determine where the bass and trout populations are both constant. Noting that the $(x(t), y(t))$ values remain unchanged when $dx/dt = 0$ and $dy/dt = 0$, Equations (1a and 1b) then become

$$(a - by)x = 0,$$
$$(m - nx)y = 0.$$

This pair of simultaneous equations has two solutions: $(x, y) = (0, 0)$ and $(x, y) = (m/n, a/b)$. At these (x, y) values, called **equilibrium** or **rest points**, the two populations remain at constant values over all time. The point $(0, 0)$ represents a pond containing no members of either fish species; the point $(m/n, a/b)$ corresponds to a pond with an unchanging number of each fish species.

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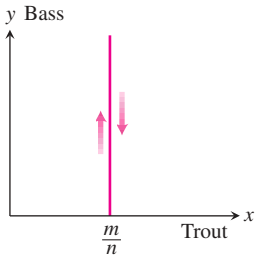

FIGURE 15.28 To the left of the line $x = m/n$ the trajectories move upward, and to the right they move downward.

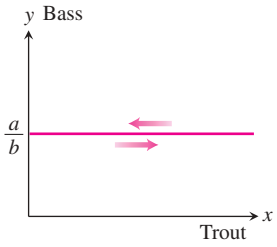

FIGURE 15.29 Above the line $y = a/b$ the trajectories move to the left, and below it they move to the right.

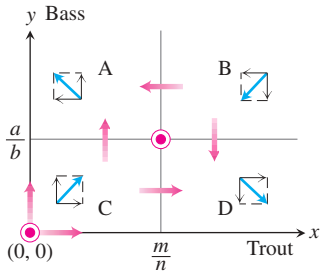

FIGURE 15.30 Composite graphical analysis of the trajectory directions in the four regions determined by $x = m/n$ and $y = a/b$.

Next, we note that if $y = a/b$, then Equation (1a) implies $dx/dt = 0$, so the trout population $x(t)$ is constant. Similarly, if $x = m/n$, then Equation (1b) implies $dy/dt = 0$, and the bass population $y(t)$ is constant. This information is recorded in Figure 15.27.

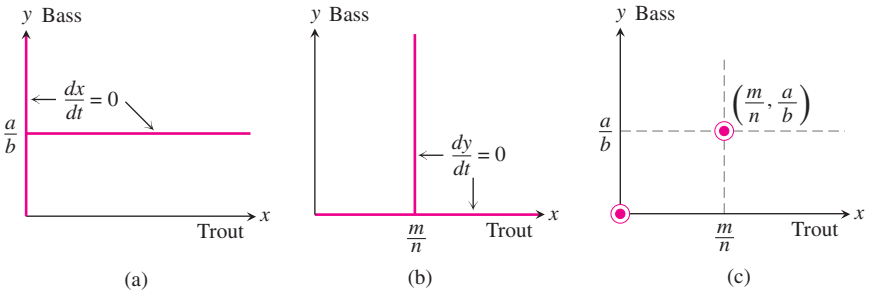

FIGURE 15.27 Rest points in the competitive-hunter model given by Equations (1a and 1b).

In setting up our competitive-hunter model, precise values of the constants a, b, m, n will not generally be known. Nonetheless, we can analyze the system of Equations (1) to learn the nature of its solution trajectories. We begin by determining the signs of dx/dt and dy/dt throughout the phase plane. Although $x(t)$ represents the number of trout and $y(t)$ the number of bass at time t, we are thinking of the pair of values $(x(t), y(t))$ as a point tracing out a trajectory curve in the phase plane. When dx/dt is positive, $x(t)$ is increasing and the point is moving to the right in the phase plane. If dx/dt is negative, the point is moving to the left. Likewise, the point is moving upward where dy/dt is positive and downward where dy/dt is negative.

We saw that $dy/dt = 0$ along the vertical line $x = m/n$. To the left of this line, dy/dt is positive since $dy/dt = (m - nx)y$ and $x < m/n$. So the trajectories on this side of the line are directed upward. To the right of this line, dy/dt is negative and the trajectories point downward. The directions of the associated trajectories are indicated in Figure 15.28. Similarly, above the horizontal line $y = a/b$, we have $dx/dt < 0$ and the trajectories head leftward; below this line they head rightward, as shown in Figure 15.29. Combining this information gives four distinct regions in the plane A, B, C, D, with their respective trajectory directions shown in Figure 15.30.

Next, we examine what happens near the two equilibrium points. The trajectories near $(0, 0)$ point away from it, upward and to the right. The behavior near the equilibrium point $(m/n, a/b)$ depends on the region in which a trajectory begins. If it starts in region B, for instance, then it will move downward and leftward towards the equilibrium point. Depending on where the trajectory begins, it may move downward into region D, leftward into region A, or perhaps straight into the equilibrium point. If it enters into regions A or D, then it will continue to move away from the rest point. We say that both rest points are **unstable**, meaning (in this setting) there are trajectories near each point that head away from them. These features are indicated in Figure 15.31.

It turns out that in each of the half-planes above and below the line $y = a/b$, there is exactly one trajectory approaching the equilibrium point $(m/n, a/b)$ (see Exercise 7). Above these two trajectories the bass population increases and below them it decreases. The two trajectories approaching the equilibrium point are suggested in Figure 15.32.

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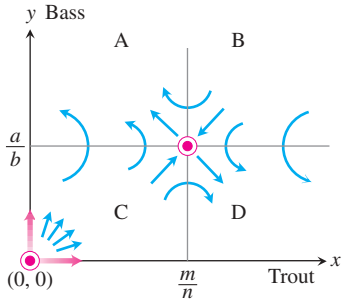

FIGURE 15.31 Motion along the trajectories near the rest points (0, 0) and $(m/n, a/b)$.

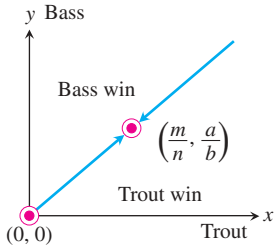

FIGURE 15.32 Qualitative results of analyzing the competitive-hunter model. There are exactly two trajectories approaching the point $(m/n, a/b)$.

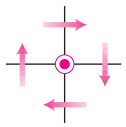

FIGURE 15.33 Trajectory direction near the rest point (0, 0).

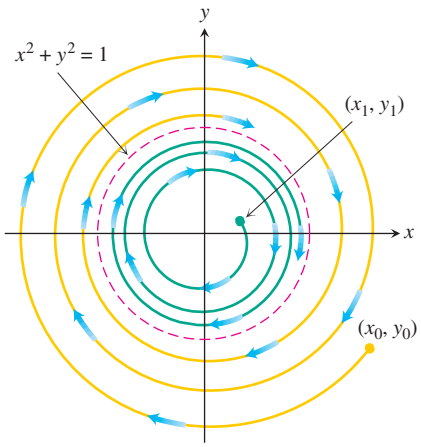

FIGURE 15.35 The solution $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is a limit cycle.

Our graphical analysis leads us to conclude that, under the assumptions of the competitive-hunter model, it is unlikely that both species will reach equilibrium levels. This is because it would be almost impossible for the fish populations to move exactly along one of the two approaching trajectories for all time. Furthermore, the initial populations point (x_0, y_0) determines which of the two species is likely to survive over time, and mutual coexistence of the species is highly improbable.

Limitations of the Phase-Plane Analysis Method

Unlike the situation for the competitive-hunter model, it is not always possible to determine the behavior of trajectories near a rest point. For example, suppose we know that the trajectories near a rest point, chosen here to be the origin (0, 0), behave as in Figure 15.33. The information provided by Figure 15.33 is not sufficient to distinguish between the three possible trajectories shown in Figure 15.34. Even if we could determine that a trajectory near an equilibrium point resembles that of Figure 15.34c, we would still not know how the other trajectories behave. It could happen that a trajectory closer to the origin behaves like the motions displayed in Figure 15.34a or 15.34b. The spiraling trajectory in Figure 15.34b can never actually reach the rest point in a finite time period.

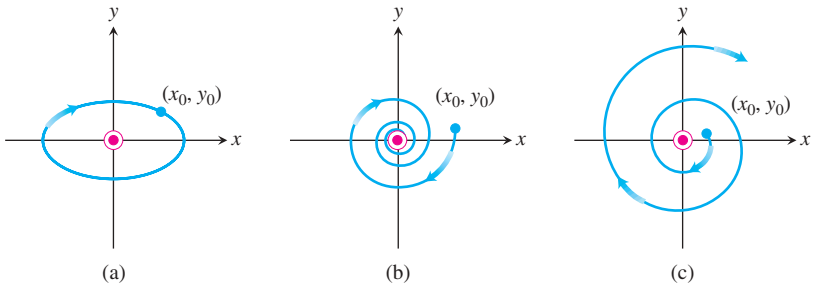

FIGURE 15.34 Three possible trajectory motions: (a) periodic motion, (b) motion toward an asymptotically stable rest point, and (c) motion near an unstable rest point.

Another Type of Behavior

The system

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = y + x - x(x^2 + y^2), \tag{2a}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -x + y - y(x^2 + y^2) \tag{2b}$$

can be shown to have only one equilibrium point at (0, 0). Yet any trajectory starting on the unit circle traverses it clockwise because, when $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, we have $dy/dx = -x/y$ (see Exercise 2). If a trajectory starts inside the unit circle, it spirals outward, asymptotically approaching the circle as $t \to \infty$. If a trajectory starts outside the unit circle, it spirals inward, again asymptotically approaching the circle as $t \to \infty$. The circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is called a **limit cycle** of the system (Figure 15.35). In this system, the values of x and y eventually become periodic.

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EXERCISES 15.6

1. List three important considerations that are ignored in the competitive-hunter model as presented in the text.

2. For the system (2a and 2b), show that any trajectory starting on the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ will traverse the unit circle in a periodic solution. First introduce polar coordinates and rewrite the system as $dr/dt = r(1 - r^2)$ and $d\theta/dt = 1$.

3. Develop a model for the growth of trout and bass assuming that in isolation trout demonstrate exponential decay [so that $a < 0$ in Equations (1a and 1b)] and that the bass population grows logistically with a population limit M. Analyze graphically the motion in the vicinity of the rest points in your model. Is coexistence possible?

4. How might the competitive-hunter model be validated? Include a discussion of how the various constants a, b, m, and n might be estimated. How could state conservation authorities use the model to ensure the survival of both species?

5. Consider another competitive-hunter model defined by

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = a\left(1 - \frac{x}{k_1}\right)x - bxy,$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = m\left(1 - \frac{y}{k_2}\right)y - nxy,$$

where x and y represent trout and bass populations, respectively.

a. What assumptions are implicitly being made about the growth of trout and bass in the absence of competition?

b. Interpret the constants a, b, m, n, k_1, and k_2 in terms of the physical problem.

c. Perform a graphical analysis:

i. Find the possible equilibrium levels.

ii. Determine whether coexistence is possible.

iii. Pick several typical starting points and sketch typical trajectories in the phase plane.

iv. Interpret the outcomes predicted by your graphical analysis in terms of the constants a, b, m, n, k_1, and k_2.

Note: When you get to part (iii), you should realize that five cases exist. You will need to analyze all five cases.

6. Consider the following economic model. Let P be the price of a single item on the market. Let Q be the quantity of the item available on the market. Both P and Q are functions of time. If one considers price and quantity as two interacting species, the following model might be proposed:

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = aP\left(\frac{b}{Q} - P\right),$$

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = cQ(fP - Q),$$

where a, b, c, and f are positive constants. Justify and discuss the adequacy of the model.

a. If $a = 1$, $b = 20{,}000$, $c = 1$, and $f = 30$, find the equilibrium points of this system. If possible, classify each equilibrium point with respect to its stability. If a point cannot be readily classified, give some explanation.

b. Perform a graphical stability analysis to determine what will happen to the levels of P and Q as time increases.

c. Give an economic interpretation of the curves that determine the equilibrium points.

7. Show that the two trajectories leading to $(m/n, a/b)$ shown in Figure 15.32 are unique by carrying out the following steps.

a. From system (1a and 1b) derive the following equation:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(m - nx)y}{(a - by)x}.$$

b. Separate variables, integrate, and exponentiate to obtain

$$y^a e^{-by} = Kx^m e^{-nx}$$

where K is a constant of integration.

c. Let $f(y) = y^a/e^{by}$ and $g(x) = x^m/e^{nx}$. Show that $f(y)$ has a unique maximum of $M_y = (a/eb)^a$ when $y = a/b$ as shown in Figure 15.36. Similarly, show that $g(x)$ has a unique maximum $M_x = (m/en)^m$ when $x = m/n$, also shown in Figure 15.36.

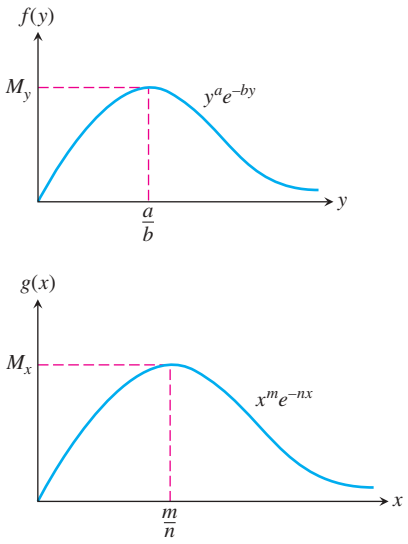

FIGURE 15.36 Graphs of the functions $f(y) = y^a/e^{by}$ and $g(x) = x^m/e^{nx}$.

d. Consider what happens as (x, y) approaches $(m/n, a/b)$. Take limits in part (b) as $x \to m/n$ and $y \to a/b$ to show that either

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$$\lim_{\substack{x \to m/n \\ y \to a/b}} \left[\left(\frac{y^a}{e^{by}} \right) \left(\frac{e^{nx}}{x^m} \right) \right] = K$$

or $M_y/M_x = K$. Thus any solution trajectory that approaches $(m/n, a/b)$ must satisfy

$$\frac{y^a}{e^{by}} = \left(\frac{M_y}{M_x} \right) \left(\frac{x^m}{e^{nx}} \right).$$

e. Show that only one trajectory can approach $(m/n, a/b)$ from below the line $y = a/b$. Pick $y_0 < a/b$. From Figure 15.36 you can see that $f(y_0) < M_y$, which implies that

$$\frac{M_y}{M_x} \left(\frac{x^m}{e^{nx}} \right) = {y_0}^a / e^{by_0} < M_y.$$

This in turn implies that

$$\frac{x^m}{e^{nx}} < M_x.$$

Figure 15.36 tells you that for $g(x)$ there is a unique value $x_0 < m/n$ satisfying this last inequality. That is, for each $y < a/b$ there is a unique value of x satisfying the equation in part (d). Thus there can exist only one trajectory solution approaching $(m/n, a/b)$ from below, as shown in Figure 15.37.

f. Use a similar argument to show that the solution trajectory leading to $(m/n, a/b)$ is unique if $y_0 > a/b$.

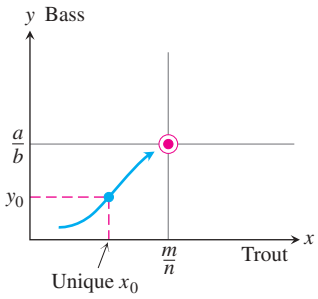

FIGURE 15.37 For any $y < a/b$ only one solution trajectory leads to the rest point $(m/n, a/b)$.

8. Show that the second-order differential equation $y'' = F(x, y, y')$ can be reduced to a system of two first-order differential equations

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = z,$$

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = F(x, y, z).$$

Can something similar be done to the nth-order differential equation $y^{(n)} = F\left(x, y, y', y'', \ldots, y^{(n-1)}\right)$?

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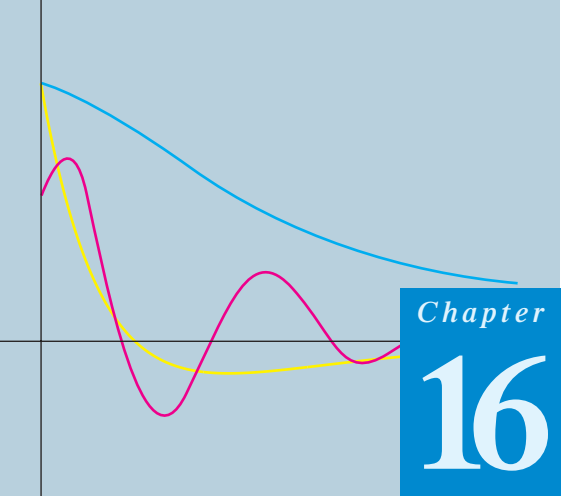

Chapter

16 SECOND-ORDER DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

OVERVIEW In this chapter we extend our study of differential equations to those of *second order*. Second-order differential equations arise in many applications in the sciences and engineering. For instance, they can be applied to the study of vibrating springs and electric circuits. You will learn how to solve such differential equations by several methods in this chapter.

16.1 Second-Order Linear Equations

An equation of the form

$$P(x)y''(x) + Q(x)y'(x) + R(x)y(x) = G(x), \tag{1}$$

which is linear in y and its derivatives, is called a **second-order linear differential equation**. We assume that the functions P, Q, R, and G are continuous throughout some open interval I. If $G(x)$ is identically zero on I, the equation is said to be **homogeneous**; otherwise it is called **nonhomogeneous**. Therefore, the form of a second-order linear homogeneous differential equation is

$$P(x)y'' + Q(x)y' + R(x)y = 0. \tag{2}$$

We also assume that $P(x)$ is never zero for any $x \in I$.

Two fundamental results are important to solving Equation (2). The first of these says that if we know two solutions y_1 and y_2 of the linear homogeneous equation, then any **linear combination** $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$ is also a solution for any constants c_1 and c_2.

THEOREM 1—The Superposition Principle If $y_1(x)$ and $y_2(x)$ are two solutions to the linear homogeneous equation (2), then for any constants c_1 and c_2, the function

$$y(x) = c_1y_1(x) + c_2y_2(x)$$

is also a solution to Equation (2).

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Proof Substituting y into Equation (2), we have

$$\begin{aligned} &P(x)y'' + Q(x)y' + R(x)y \\ &\quad = P(x)(c_1y_1 + c_2y_2)'' + Q(x)(c_1y_1 + c_2y_2)' + R(x)(c_1y_1 + c_2y_2) \\ &\quad = P(x)(c_1y_1'' + c_2y_2'') + Q(x)(c_1y_1' + c_2y_2') + R(x)(c_1y_1 + c_2y_2) \\ &\quad = \underbrace{c_1(P(x)y_1'' + Q(x)y_1' + R(x)y_1)}_{= 0,\ y_1 \text{ is a solution}} + \underbrace{c_2(P(x)y_2'' + Q(x)y_2' + R(x)y_2)}_{= 0,\ y_2 \text{ is a solution}} \\ &\quad = c_1(0) + c_2(0) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$ is a solution of Equation (2). ■

Theorem 1 immediately establishes the following facts concerning solutions to the linear homogeneous equation.

1. A sum of two solutions $y_1 + y_2$ to Equation (2) is also a solution. (Choose $c_1 = c_2 = 1$.)
2. A constant multiple ky_1 of any solution y_1 to Equation (2) is also a solution. (Choose $c_1 = k$ and $c_2 = 0$.)
3. The **trivial solution** $y(x) \equiv 0$ is always a solution to the linear homogeneous equation. (Choose $c_1 = c_2 = 0$.)

The second fundamental result about solutions to the linear homogeneous equation concerns its **general solution** or solution containing all solutions. This result says that there are two solutions y_1 and y_2 such that any solution is some linear combination of them for suitable values of the constants c_1 and c_2. However, not just any pair of solutions will do. The solutions must be **linearly independent**, which means that neither y_1 nor y_2 is a constant multiple of the other. For example, the functions $f(x) = e^x$ and $g(x) = xe^x$ are linearly independent, whereas $f(x) = x^2$ and $g(x) = 7x^2$ are not (so they are linearly dependent). These results on linear independence and the following theorem are proved in more advanced courses.

THEOREM 2 If P, Q, and R are continuous over the open interval I and $P(x)$ is never zero on I, then the linear homogeneous equation (2) has two linearly independent solutions y_1 and y_2 on I. Moreover, if y_1 and y_2 are *any* two linearly independent solutions of Equation (2), then the general solution is given by

$$y(x) = c_1y_1(x) + c_2y_2(x),$$

where c_1 and c_2 are arbitrary constants.

We now turn our attention to finding two linearly independent solutions to the special case of Equation (2), where P, Q, and R are constant functions.

Constant-Coefficient Homogeneous Equations

Suppose we wish to solve the second-order homogeneous differential equation

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0, \tag{3}$$

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where a, b, and c are constants. To solve Equation (3), we seek a function which when multiplied by a constant and added to a constant times its first derivative plus a constant times its second derivative sums identically to zero. One function that behaves this way is the exponential function $y = e^{rx}$, when r is a constant. Two differentiations of this exponential function give $y' = re^{rx}$ and $y'' = r^2e^{rx}$, which are just constant multiples of the original exponential. If we substitute $y = e^{rx}$ into Equation (3), we obtain

$$ar^2e^{rx} + bre^{rx} + ce^{rx} = 0.$$

Since the exponential function is never zero, we can divide this last equation through by e^{rx}. Thus, $y = e^{rx}$ is a solution to Equation (3) if and only if r is a solution to the algebraic equation

$$ar^2 + br + c = 0. \tag{4}$$

Equation (4) is called the **auxiliary equation** (or **characteristic equation**) of the differential equation $ay'' + by' + cy = 0$. The auxiliary equation is a quadratic equation with roots

$$r_1 = \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \quad \text{and} \quad r_2 = \frac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}.$$

There are three cases to consider which depend on the value of the discriminant $b^2 - 4ac$.

Case 1: $b^2 - 4ac > 0$. In this case the auxiliary equation has two real and unequal roots r_1 and r_2. Then $y_1 = e^{r_1x}$ and $y_2 = e^{r_2x}$ are two linearly independent solutions to Equation (3) because e^{r_2x} is not a constant multiple of e^{r_1x} (see Exercise 61). From Theorem 2 we conclude the following result.

THEOREM 3 If r_1 and r_2 are two real and unequal roots to the auxiliary equation $ar^2 + br + c = 0$, then

$$y = c_1e^{r_1x} + c_2e^{r_2x}$$

is the general solution to $ay'' + by' + cy = 0$.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the general solution of the differential equation

$$y'' - y' - 6y = 0.$$

Solution Substitution of $y = e^{rx}$ into the differential equation yields the auxiliary equation

$$r^2 - r - 6 = 0,$$

which factors as

$$(r - 3)(r + 2) = 0.$$

The roots are $r_1 = 3$ and $r_2 = -2$. Thus, the general solution is

$$y = c_1e^{3x} + c_2e^{-2x}.$$ ■

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Case 2: $b^2 - 4ac = 0$. In this case $r_1 = r_2 = -b/2a$. To simplify the notation, let $r = -b/2a$. Then we have one solution $y_1 = e^{rx}$ with $2ar + b = 0$. Since multiplication of e^{rx} by a constant fails to produce a second linearly independent solution, suppose we try multiplying by a *function* instead. The simplest such function would be $u(x) = x$, so let's see if $y_2 = xe^{rx}$ is also a solution. Substituting y_2 into the differential equation gives

$$\begin{aligned} ay_2'' + by_2' + cy_2 &= a(2re^{rx} + r^2xe^{rx}) + b(e^{rx} + rxe^{rx}) + cxe^{rx} \\ &= (2ar + b)e^{rx} + (ar^2 + br + c)xe^{rx} \\ &= 0(e^{rx}) + (0)xe^{rx} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

The first term is zero because $r = -b/2a$; the second term is zero because r solves the auxiliary equation. The functions $y_1 = e^{rx}$ and $y_2 = xe^{rx}$ are linearly independent (see Exercise 62). From Theorem 2 we conclude the following result.

THEOREM 4 If r is the only (repeated) real root to the auxiliary equation $ar^2 + br + c = 0$, then

$$y = c_1e^{rx} + c_2xe^{rx}$$

is the general solution to $ay'' + by' + cy = 0$.

EXAMPLE 2 Find the general solution to

$$y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0.$$

Solution The auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 + 4r + 4 = 0,$$

which factors into

$$(r + 2)^2 = 0.$$

Thus, $r = -2$ is a double root. Therefore, the general solution is

$$y = c_1e^{-2x} + c_2xe^{-2x}.$$ ■

Case 3: $b^2 - 4ac < 0$. In this case the auxiliary equation has two complex roots $r_1 = \alpha + i\beta$ and $r_2 = \alpha - i\beta$, where α and β are real numbers and $i^2 = -1$. (These real numbers are $\alpha = -b/2a$ and $\beta = \sqrt{4ac - b^2}/2a$.) These two complex roots then give rise to two linearly independent solutions

$$y_1 = e^{(\alpha+i\beta)x} = e^{\alpha x}(\cos \beta x + i \sin \beta x) \quad \text{and} \quad y_2 = e^{(\alpha-i\beta)x} = e^{\alpha x}(\cos \beta x - i \sin \beta x).$$

(The expressions involving the sine and cosine terms follow from Euler's identity in Section 8.9.) However, the solutions y_1 and y_2 are *complex valued* rather than real valued. Nevertheless, because of the superposition principle (Theorem 1), we can obtain from them the two real-valued solutions

$$y_3 = \frac{1}{2}y_1 + \frac{1}{2}y_2 = e^{\alpha x}\cos \beta x \qquad \text{and} \qquad y_4 = \frac{1}{2i}y_1 - \frac{1}{2i}y_2 = e^{\alpha x}\sin \beta x.$$

The functions y_3 and y_4 are linearly independent (see Exercise 63). From Theorem 2 we conclude the following result.

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THEOREM 5 If $r_1 = \alpha + i\beta$ and $r_2 = \alpha - i\beta$ are two complex roots to the auxiliary equation $ar^2 + br + c = 0$, then

$$y = e^{\alpha x}(c_1 \cos \beta x + c_2 \sin \beta x)$$

is the general solution to $ay'' + by' + cy = 0$.

EXAMPLE 3 Find the general solution to the differential equation

$$y'' - 4y' + 5y = 0.$$

Solution The auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 - 4r + 5 = 0.$$

The roots are the complex pair $r = (4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 20})/2$ or $r_1 = 2 + i$ and $r_2 = 2 - i$. Thus, $\alpha = 2$ and $\beta = 1$ give the general solution

$$y = e^{2x}(c_1 \cos x + c_2 \sin x).$$ ■

Initial Value and Boundary Value Problems

To determine a unique solution to a first-order linear differential equation, it was sufficient to specify the value of the solution at a single point. Since the general solution to a second-order equation contains two arbitrary constants, it is necessary to specify two conditions. One way of doing this is to specify the value of the solution function and the value of its derivative at a single point: $y(x_0) = y_0$ and $y'(x_0) = y_1$. These conditions are called **initial conditions**. The following result is proved in more advanced texts and guarantees the existence of a unique solution for both homogeneous and nonhomogeneous second-order linear initial value problems.

THEOREM 6 If P, Q, R, and G are continuous throughout an open interval I, then there exists one and only one function $y(x)$ satisfying both the differential equation

$$P(x)y''(x) + Q(x)y'(x) + R(x)y(x) = G(x)$$

on the interval I, and the initial conditions

$$y(x_0) = y_0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad y'(x_0) = y_1$$

at the specified point $x_0 \in I$.

It is important to realize that any real values can be assigned to y_0 and y_1 and Theorem 6 applies. Here is an example of an initial value problem for a homogeneous equation.

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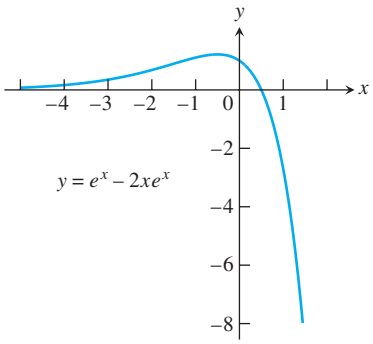

FIGURE 16.1 Particular solution curve for Example 4.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the particular solution to the initial value problem

$$y'' - 2y' + y = 0, \qquad y(0) = 1, \quad y'(0) = -1.$$

Solution The auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 - 2r + 1 = (r - 1)^2 = 0.$$

The repeated real root is $r = 1$, giving the general solution

$$y = c_1 e^x + c_2 x e^x.$$

Then,

$$y' = c_1 e^x + c_2(x + 1)e^x.$$

From the initial conditions we have

$$1 = c_1 + c_2 \cdot 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad -1 = c_1 + c_2 \cdot 1.$$

Thus, $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = -2$. The unique solution satisfying the initial conditions is

$$y = e^x - 2xe^x.$$

The solution curve is shown in Figure 16.1. ■

Another approach to determine the values of the two arbitrary constants in the general solution to a second-order differential equation is to specify the values of the solution function at *two different points* in the interval I. That is, we solve the differential equation subject to the **boundary values**

$$y(x_1) = y_1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad y(x_2) = y_2,$$

where x_1 and x_2 both belong to I. Here again the values for y_1 and y_2 can be any real numbers. The differential equation together with specified boundary values is called a **boundary value problem**. Unlike the result stated in Theorem 6, boundary value problems do not always possess a solution or more than one solution may exist (see Exercise 65). These problems are studied in more advanced texts, but here is an example for which there is a unique solution.

EXAMPLE 5 Solve the boundary value problem

$$y'' + 4y = 0, \qquad y(0) = 0, \quad y\left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right) = 1.$$

Solution The auxiliary equation is $r^2 + 4 = 0$, which has the complex roots $r = \pm 2i$. The general solution to the differential equation is

$$y = c_1 \cos 2x + c_2 \sin 2x.$$

The boundary conditions are satisfied if

$$y(0) = c_1 \cdot 1 + c_2 \cdot 0 = 0$$

$$y\left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right) = c_1 \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) + c_2 \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) = 1.$$

It follows that $c_1 = 0$ and $c_2 = 2$. The solution to the boundary value problem is

$$y = 2 \sin 2x.$$

■

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EXERCISES 16.1

In Exercises 1–30, find the general solution of the given equation.

1. $y'' - y' - 12y = 0$
2. $3y'' - y' = 0$
3. $y'' + 3y' - 4y = 0$
4. $y'' - 9y = 0$
5. $y'' - 4y = 0$
6. $y'' - 64y = 0$
7. $2y'' - y' - 3y = 0$
8. $9y'' - y = 0$
9. $8y'' - 10y' - 3y = 0$
10. $3y'' - 20y' + 12y = 0$
11. $y'' + 9y = 0$
12. $y'' + 4y' + 5y = 0$
13. $y'' + 25y = 0$
14. $y'' + y = 0$
15. $y'' - 2y' + 5y = 0$
16. $y'' + 16y = 0$
17. $y'' + 2y' + 4y = 0$
18. $y'' - 2y' + 3y = 0$
19. $y'' + 4y' + 9y = 0$
20. $4y'' - 4y' + 13y = 0$
21. $y'' = 0$
22. $y'' + 8y' + 16y = 0$
23. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0$
24. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 6\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 9y = 0$
25. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 6\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 9y = 0$
26. $4\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 12\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 9y = 0$
27. $4\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4\dfrac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$
28. $4\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4\dfrac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$
29. $9\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 6\dfrac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$
30. $9\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 12\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0$

In Exercises 31–40, find the unique solution of the second-order initial value problem.

31. $y'' + 6y' + 5y = 0, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = 3$
32. $y'' + 16y = 0, \quad y(0) = 2, \; y'(0) = -2$
33. $y'' + 12y = 0, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = 1$
34. $12y'' + 5y' - 2y = 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \; y'(0) = -1$
35. $y'' + 8y = 0, \quad y(0) = -1, \; y'(0) = 2$
36. $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = 1$
37. $y'' - 4y' + 4y = 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \; y'(0) = 0$
38. $4y'' - 4y' + y = 0, \quad y(0) = 4, \; y'(0) = 4$
39. $4\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 12\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 9y = 0, \quad y(0) = 2, \; \dfrac{dy}{dx}(0) = 1$
40. $9\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 12\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0, \quad y(0) = -1, \; \dfrac{dy}{dx}(0) = 1$

In Exercises 41–55, find the general solution.

41. $y'' - 2y' - 3y = 0$
42. $6y'' - y' - y = 0$
43. $4y'' + 4y' + y = 0$
44. $9y'' + 12y' + 4y = 0$
45. $4y'' + 20y = 0$
46. $y'' + 2y' + 2y = 0$
47. $25y'' + 10y' + y = 0$
48. $6y'' + 13y' - 5y = 0$
49. $4y'' + 4y' + 5y = 0$
50. $y'' + 4y' + 6y = 0$
51. $16y'' - 24y' + 9y = 0$
52. $6y'' - 5y' - 6y = 0$
53. $9y'' + 24y' + 16y = 0$
54. $4y'' + 16y' + 52y = 0$
55. $6y'' - 5y' - 4y = 0$

In Exercises 56–60, solve the initial value problem.

56. $y'' - 2y' + 2y = 0, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = 2$
57. $y'' + 2y' + y = 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \; y'(0) = 1$
58. $4y'' - 4y' + y = 0, \quad y(0) = -1, \; y'(0) = 2$
59. $3y'' + y' - 14y = 0, \quad y(0) = 2, \; y'(0) = -1$
60. $4y'' + 4y' + 5y = 0, \quad y(\pi) = 1, \; y'(\pi) = 0$

61. Prove that the two solution functions in Theorem 3 are linearly independent.

62. Prove that the two solution functions in Theorem 4 are linearly independent.

63. Prove that the two solution functions in Theorem 5 are linearly independent.

64. Prove that if y_1 and y_2 are linearly independent solutions to the homogeneous equation (2), then the functions $y_3 = y_1 + y_2$ and $y_4 = y_1 - y_2$ are also linearly independent solutions.

65. **a.** Show that there is no solution to the boundary value problem

$$y'' + 4y = 0, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y(\pi) = 1.$$

b. Show that there are infinitely many solutions to the boundary value problem

$$y'' + 4y = 0, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y(\pi) = 0.$$

66. Show that if a, b, and c are positive constants, then all solutions of the homogeneous differential equation

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0$$

approach zero as $x \to \infty$.

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16.2 Nonhomogeneous Linear Equations

In this section we study two methods for solving second-order linear nonhomogeneous differential equations with constant coefficients. These are the methods of *undetermined coefficients* and *variation of parameters*. We begin by considering the form of the general solution.

Form of the General Solution

Suppose we wish to solve the nonhomogeneous equation

$$ay'' + by' + cy = G(x), \tag{1}$$

where a, b, and c are constants and G is continuous over some open interval I. Let $y_c = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$ be the general solution to the associated **complementary equation**

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0. \tag{2}$$

(We learned how to find y_c in Section 16.1.) Now suppose we could somehow come up with a particular function y_p that solves the nonhomogeneous equation (1). Then the sum

$$y = y_c + y_p \tag{3}$$

also solves the nonhomogeneous equation (1) because

$$\begin{aligned} a(y_c + y_p)'' + b(y_c + y_p)' + c(y_c + y_p) &= (ay_c'' + by_c' + cy_c) + (ay_p'' + by_p' + cy_p) \\ &= 0 + G(x) \qquad y_c \text{ solves Eq. (2) and } y_p \text{ solves Eq. (1)} \\ &= G(x). \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, if $y = y(x)$ is the general solution to the nonhomogeneous equation (1), it must have the form of Equation (3). The reason for this last statement follows from the observation that for any function y_p satisfying Equation (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} a(y - y_p)'' + b(y - y_p)' + c(y - y_p) &= (ay'' + by' + cy) - (ay_p'' + by_p' + cy_p) \\ &= G(x) - G(x) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $y_c = y - y_p$ is the general solution to the homogeneous equation (2). We have established the following result.

THEOREM 7 The general solution $y = y(x)$ to the nonhomogeneous differential equation (1) has the form

$$y = y_c + y_p,$$

where the **complementary solution** y_c is the general solution to the associated homogeneous equation (2) and y_p is any **particular solution** to the nonhomogeneous equation (1).

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The Method of Undetermined Coefficients

This method for finding a particular solution y_p to nonhomogeneous equation (1) applies to special cases for which $G(x)$ is a sum of terms of various polynomials $p(x)$ multiplying an exponential with possibly sine or cosine factors. That is, $G(x)$ is a sum of terms of the following forms:

$$p_1(x)e^{rx}, \qquad p_2(x)e^{\alpha x}\cos \beta x, \qquad p_3(x)e^{\alpha x}\sin \beta x.$$

For instance, $1 - x$, e^{2x}, xe^x, $\cos x$, and $5e^x - \sin 2x$ represent functions in this category. (Essentially these are functions solving homogeneous linear differential equations with constant coefficients, but the equations may be of order higher than two.) We now present several examples illustrating the method.

EXAMPLE 1 Solve the nonhomogeneous equation $y'' - 2y' - 3y = 1 - x^2$.

Solution The auxiliary equation for the complementary equation $y'' - 2y' - 3y = 0$ is

$$r^2 - 2r - 3 = (r + 1)(r - 3) = 0.$$

It has the roots $r = -1$ and $r = 3$ giving the complementary solution

$$y_c = c_1e^{-x} + c_2e^{3x}.$$

Now $G(x) = 1 - x^2$ is a polynomial of degree 2. It would be reasonable to assume that a particular solution to the given nonhomogeneous equation is also a polynomial of degree 2 because if y is a polynomial of degree 2, then $y'' - 2y' - 3y$ is also a polynomial of degree 2. So we seek a particular solution of the form

$$y_p = Ax^2 + Bx + C.$$

We need to determine the unknown coefficients A, B, and C. When we substitute the polynomial y_p and its derivatives into the given nonhomogeneous equation, we obtain

$$2A - 2(2Ax + B) - 3(Ax^2 + Bx + C) = 1 - x^2$$

or, collecting terms with like powers of x,

$$-3Ax^2 + (-4A - 3B)x + (2A - 2B - 3C) = 1 - x^2.$$

This last equation holds for all values of x if its two sides are identical polynomials of degree 2. Thus, we equate corresponding powers of x to get

$$-3A = -1, \qquad -4A - 3B = 0, \qquad \text{and} \qquad 2A - 2B - 3C = 1.$$

These equations imply in turn that $A = 1/3$, $B = -4/9$, and $C = 5/27$. Substituting these values into the quadratic expression for our particular solution gives

$$y_p = \frac{1}{3}x^2 - \frac{4}{9}x + \frac{5}{27}.$$

By Theorem 7, the general solution to the nonhomogeneous equation is

$$y = y_c + y_p = c_1e^{-x} + c_2e^{3x} + \frac{1}{3}x^2 - \frac{4}{9}x + \frac{5}{27}.$$ ■

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EXAMPLE 2 Find a particular solution of $y'' - y' = 2 \sin x$.

Solution If we try to find a particular solution of the form

$$y_p = A \sin x$$

and substitute the derivatives of y_p in the given equation, we find that A must satisfy the equation

$$-A \sin x + A \cos x = 2 \sin x$$

for all values of x. Since this requires A to equal both -2 and 0 at the same time, we conclude that the nonhomogeneous differential equation has no solution of the form $A \sin x$.

It turns out that the required form is the sum

$$y_p = A \sin x + B \cos x.$$

The result of substituting the derivatives of this new trial solution into the differential equation is

$$-A \sin x - B \cos x - (A \cos x - B \sin x) = 2 \sin x$$

or

$$(B - A) \sin x - (A + B) \cos x = 2 \sin x.$$

This last equation must be an identity. Equating the coefficients for like terms on each side then gives

$$B - A = 2 \qquad \text{and} \qquad A + B = 0.$$

Simultaneous solution of these two equations gives $A = -1$ and $B = 1$. Our particular solution is

$$y_p = \cos x - \sin x.$$ ■

EXAMPLE 3 Find a particular solution of $y'' - 3y' + 2y = 5e^x$.

Solution If we substitute

$$y_p = Ae^x$$

and its derivatives in the differential equation, we find that

$$Ae^x - 3Ae^x + 2Ae^x = 5e^x$$

or

$$0 = 5e^x.$$

However, the exponential function is never zero. The trouble can be traced to the fact that $y = e^x$ is already a solution of the related homogeneous equation

$$y'' - 3y' + 2y = 0.$$

The auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 - 3r + 2 = (r - 1)(r - 2) = 0,$$

which has $r = 1$ as a root. So we would expect Ae^x to become zero when substituted into the left-hand side of the differential equation.

The appropriate way to modify the trial solution in this case is to multiply Ae^x by x. Thus, our new trial solution is

$$y_p = Axe^x.$$

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The result of substituting the derivatives of this new candidate into the differential equation is

$$(Axe^x + 2Ae^x) - 3(Axe^x + Ae^x) + 2Axe^x = 5e^x$$

or

$$-Ae^x = 5e^x.$$

Thus, $A = -5$ gives our sought-after particular solution

$$y_p = -5xe^x.$$ ■

EXAMPLE 4 Find a particular solution of $y'' - 6y' + 9y = e^{3x}$.

Solution The auxiliary equation for the complementary equation

$$r^2 - 6r + 9 = (r - 3)^2 = 0$$

has $r = 3$ as a repeated root. The appropriate choice for y_p in this case is neither Ae^{3x} nor Axe^{3x} because the complementary solution contains both of those terms already. Thus, we choose a term containing the next higher power of x as a factor. When we substitute

$$y_p = Ax^2e^{3x}$$

and its derivatives in the given differential equation, we get

$$(9Ax^2e^{3x} + 12Axe^{3x} + 2Ae^{3x}) - 6(3Ax^2e^{3x} + 2Axe^{3x}) + 9Ax^2e^{3x} = e^{3x}$$

or

$$2Ae^{3x} = e^{3x}.$$

Thus, $A = 1/2$, and the particular solution is

$$y_p = \frac{1}{2}x^2e^{3x}.$$ ■

When we wish to find a particular solution of Equation (1) and the function $G(x)$ is the sum of two or more terms, we choose a trial function for each term in $G(x)$ and add them.

EXAMPLE 5 Find the general solution to $y'' - y' = 5e^x - \sin 2x$.

Solution We first check the auxiliary equation

$$r^2 - r = 0.$$

Its roots are $r = 1$ and $r = 0$. Therefore, the complementary solution to the associated homogeneous equation is

$$y_c = c_1e^x + c_2.$$

We now seek a particular solution y_p. That is, we seek a function that will produce $5e^x - \sin 2x$ when substituted into the left-hand side of the given differential equation. One part of y_p is to produce $5e^x$, the other $-\sin 2x$.

Since any function of the form c_1e^x is a solution of the associated homogeneous equation, we choose our trial solution y_p to be the sum

$$y_p = Axe^x + B\cos 2x + C\sin 2x,$$

including xe^x where we might otherwise have included only e^x. When the derivatives of y_p are substituted into the differential equation, the resulting equation is

$$(Axe^x + 2Ae^x - 4B\cos 2x - 4C\sin 2x) - (Axe^x + Ae^x - 2B\sin 2x + 2C\cos 2x) = 5e^x - \sin 2x$$

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or

$$Ae^x - (4B + 2C)\cos 2x + (2B - 4C)\sin 2x = 5e^x - \sin 2x.$$

This equation will hold if

$$A = 5, \qquad 4B + 2C = 0, \qquad 2B - 4C = -1,$$

or $A = 5$, $B = -1/10$, and $C = 1/5$. Our particular solution is

$$y_p = 5xe^x - \frac{1}{10}\cos 2x + \frac{1}{5}\sin 2x.$$

The general solution to the differential equation is

$$y = y_c + y_p = c_1e^x + c_2 + 5xe^x - \frac{1}{10}\cos 2x + \frac{1}{5}\sin 2x. \quad \blacksquare$$

You may find the following table helpful in solving the problems at the end of this section.

TABLE 16.1 The method of undetermined coefficients for selected equations of the form

$$ay'' + by' + cy = G(x).$$

If $G(x)$ has a term that is a constant multiple of . . .	And if	Then include this expression in the trial function for y_p.
e^{rx}	r is not a root of the auxiliary equation	Ae^{rx}
	r is a single root of the auxiliary equation	Axe^{rx}
	r is a double root of the auxiliary equation	Ax^2e^{rx}
$\sin kx$, $\cos kx$	k is not a root of the auxiliary equation	$B\cos kx + C\sin kx$
$px^2 + qx + m$	0 is not a root of the auxiliary equation	$Dx^2 + Ex + F$
	0 is a single root of the auxiliary equation	$Dx^3 + Ex^2 + Fx$
	0 is a double root of the auxiliary equation	$Dx^4 + Ex^3 + Fx^2$

The Method of Variation of Parameters

This is a general method for finding a particular solution of the nonhomogeneous equation (1) once the general solution of the associated homogeneous equation is known. The method consists of replacing the constants c_1 and c_2 in the complementary solution by functions $v_1 = v_1(x)$ and $v_2 = v_2(x)$ and requiring (in a way to be explained) that the

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resulting expression satisfy the nonhomogeneous equation (1). There are two functions to be determined, and requiring that Equation (1) be satisfied is only one condition. As a second condition, we also require that

$$v_1'y_1 + v_2'y_2 = 0. \tag{4}$$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} y &= v_1y_1 + v_2y_2, \\ y' &= v_1y_1' + v_2y_2', \\ y'' &= v_1y_1'' + v_2y_2'' + v_1'y_1' + v_2'y_2'. \end{aligned}$$

If we substitute these expressions into the left-hand side of Equation (1), we obtain

$$v_1(ay_1'' + by_1' + cy_1) + v_2(ay_2'' + by_2' + cy_2) + a(v_1'y_1' + v_2'y_2') = G(x).$$

The first two parenthetical terms are zero since y_1 and y_2 are solutions of the associated homogeneous equation (2). So the nonhomogeneous equation (1) is satisfied if, in addition to Equation (4), we require that

$$a(v_1'y_1' + v_2'y_2') = G(x). \tag{5}$$

Equations (4) and (5) can be solved together as a pair

$$\begin{aligned} v_1'y_1 + v_2'y_2 &= 0, \\ v_1'y_1' + v_2'y_2' &= \frac{G(x)}{a} \end{aligned}$$

for the unknown functions v_1' and v_2'. The usual procedure for solving this simple system is to use the *method of determinants* (also known as *Cramer's Rule*), which will be demonstrated in the examples to follow. Once the derivative functions v_1' and v_2' are known, the two functions $v_1 = v_1(x)$ and $v_2 = v_2(x)$ can be found by integration. Here is a summary of the method.

Variation of Parameters Procedure

To use the method of variation of parameters to find a particular solution to the nonhomogeneous equation

$$ay'' + by' + cy = G(x),$$

we can work directly with the Equations (4) and (5). It is not necessary to rederive them. The steps are as follows.

1. Solve the associated homogeneous equation
$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0$$
to find the functions y_1 and y_2.
2. Solve the equations
$$\begin{aligned} v_1'y_1 + v_2'y_2 &= 0, \\ v_1'y_1' + v_2'y_2' &= \frac{G(x)}{a} \end{aligned}$$
simultaneously for the derivative functions v_1' and v_2'.
3. Integrate v_1' and v_2' to find the functions $v_1 = v_1(x)$ and $v_2 = v_2(x)$.
4. Write down the particular solution to nonhomogeneous equation (1) as
$$y_p = v_1y_1 + v_2y_2.$$

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EXAMPLE 6 Find the general solution to the equation

$$y'' + y = \tan x.$$

Solution The solution of the homogeneous equation

$$y'' + y = 0$$

is given by

$$y_c = c_1 \cos x + c_2 \sin x.$$

Since $y_1(x) = \cos x$ and $y_2(x) = \sin x$, the conditions to be satisfied in Equations (4) and (5) are

$$\begin{aligned} v_1' \cos x + v_2' \sin x &= 0, \\ -v_1' \sin x + v_2' \cos x &= \tan x. \qquad a = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Solution of this system gives

$$v_1' = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 0 & \sin x \\ \tan x & \cos x \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} \cos x & \sin x \\ -\sin x & \cos x \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{-\tan x \sin x}{\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x} = \frac{-\sin^2 x}{\cos x}.$$

Likewise,

$$v_2' = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \cos x & 0 \\ -\sin x & \tan x \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} \cos x & \sin x \\ -\sin x & \cos x \end{vmatrix}} = \sin x.$$

After integrating v_1' and v_2', we have

$$\begin{aligned} v_1(x) &= \int \frac{-\sin^2 x}{\cos x}\, dx \\ &= -\int (\sec x - \cos x)\, dx \\ &= -\ln|\sec x + \tan x| + \sin x, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$v_2(x) = \int \sin x\, dx = -\cos x.$$

Note that we have omitted the constants of integration in determining v_1 and v_2. They would merely be absorbed into the arbitrary constants in the complementary solution.

Substituting v_1 and v_2 into the expression for y_p in Step 4 gives

$$\begin{aligned} y_p &= [-\ln|\sec x + \tan x| + \sin x] \cos x + (-\cos x) \sin x \\ &= (-\cos x) \ln|\sec x + \tan x|. \end{aligned}$$

The general solution is

$$y = c_1 \cos x + c_2 \sin x - (\cos x) \ln|\sec x + \tan x|. \quad \blacksquare$$

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EXAMPLE 7 Solve the nonhomogeneous equation

$$y'' + y' - 2y = xe^x.$$

Solution The auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 + r - 2 = (r + 2)(r - 1) = 0$$

giving the complementary solution

$$y_c = c_1e^{-2x} + c_2e^x.$$

The conditions to be satisfied in Equations (4) and (5) are

$$\begin{aligned} v_1'e^{-2x} + v_2'e^x &= 0, \\ -2v_1'e^{-2x} + v_2'e^x &= xe^x. \qquad a = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Solving the above system for v_1' and v_2' gives

$$v_1' = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 0 & e^x \\ xe^x & e^x \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} e^{-2x} & e^x \\ -2e^{-2x} & e^x \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{-xe^{2x}}{3e^{-x}} = -\frac{1}{3}xe^{3x}.$$

Likewise,

$$v_2' = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} e^{-2x} & 0 \\ -2e^{-2x} & xe^x \end{vmatrix}}{3e^{-x}} = \frac{xe^{-x}}{3e^{-x}} = \frac{x}{3}.$$

Integrating to obtain the parameter functions, we have

$$\begin{aligned} v_1(x) &= \int -\frac{1}{3}xe^{3x}\,dx \\ &= -\frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{xe^{3x}}{3} - \int \frac{e^{3x}}{3}\,dx\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{27}(1 - 3x)e^{3x}, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$v_2(x) = \int \frac{x}{3}\,dx = \frac{x^2}{6}.$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} y_p &= \left[\frac{(1 - 3x)e^{3x}}{27}\right]e^{-2x} + \left(\frac{x^2}{6}\right)e^x \\ &= \frac{1}{27}e^x - \frac{1}{9}xe^x + \frac{1}{6}x^2e^x. \end{aligned}$$

The general solution to the differential equation is

$$y = c_1e^{-2x} + c_2e^x - \frac{1}{9}xe^x + \frac{1}{6}x^2e^x,$$

where the term $(1/27)e^x$ in y_p has been absorbed into the term c_2e^x in the complementary solution. ■

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EXERCISES 16.2

Solve the equations in Exercises 1–16 by the method of undetermined coefficients.

1. $y'' - 3y' - 10y = -3$

2. $y'' - 3y' - 10y = 2x - 3$

3. $y'' - y' = \sin x$

4. $y'' + 2y' + y = x^2$

5. $y'' + y = \cos 3x$

6. $y'' + y = e^{2x}$

7. $y'' - y' - 2y = 20 \cos x$

8. $y'' + y = 2x + 3e^x$

9. $y'' - y = e^x + x^2$

10. $y'' + 2y' + y = 6 \sin 2x$

11. $y'' - y' - 6y = e^{-x} - 7 \cos x$

12. $y'' + 3y' + 2y = e^{-x} + e^{-2x} - x$

13. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 5\dfrac{dy}{dx} = 15x^2$

14. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \dfrac{dy}{dx} = -8x + 3$

15. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 3\dfrac{dy}{dx} = e^{3x} - 12x$

16. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 7\dfrac{dy}{dx} = 42x^2 + 5x + 1$

Solve the equations in Exercises 17–28 by variation of parameters.

17. $y'' + y' = x$

18. $y'' + y = \tan x, \quad -\dfrac{\pi}{2} < x < \dfrac{\pi}{2}$

19. $y'' + y = \sin x$

20. $y'' + 2y' + y = e^x$

21. $y'' + 2y' + y = e^{-x}$

22. $y'' - y = x$

23. $y'' - y = e^x$

24. $y'' - y = \sin x$

25. $y'' + 4y' + 5y = 10$

26. $y'' - y' = 2^x$

27. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = \sec x, \quad -\dfrac{\pi}{2} < x < \dfrac{\pi}{2}$

28. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \dfrac{dy}{dx} = e^x \cos x, \quad x > 0$

In each of Exercises 29–32, the given differential equation has a particular solution y_p of the form given. Determine the coefficients in y_p. Then solve the differential equation.

29. $y'' - 5y' = xe^{5x}, \quad y_p = Ax^2e^{5x} + Bxe^{5x}$

30. $y'' - y' = \cos x + \sin x, \quad y_p = A \cos x + B \sin x$

31. $y'' + y = 2 \cos x + \sin x, \quad y_p = Ax \cos x + Bx \sin x$

32. $y'' + y' - 2y = xe^x, \quad y_p = Ax^2e^x + Bxe^x$

In Exercises 33–36, solve the given differential equations **(a)** by variation of parameters, and **(b)** by the method of undetermined coefficients.

33. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \dfrac{dy}{dx} = e^x + e^{-x}$

34. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 2e^{2x}$

35. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4\dfrac{dy}{dx} - 5y = e^x + 4$

36. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 9\dfrac{dy}{dx} = 9e^{9x}$

Solve the differential equations in Exercises 37–46. Some of the equations can be solved by the method of undetermined coefficients, but others cannot.

37. $y'' + y = \cot x, \quad 0 < x < \pi$

38. $y'' + y = \csc x, \quad 0 < x < \pi$

39. $y'' - 8y' = e^{8x}$

40. $y'' + 4y = \sin x$

41. $y'' - y' = x^3$

42. $y'' + 4y' + 5y = x + 2$

43. $y'' + 2y' = x^2 - e^x$

44. $y'' + 9y = 9x - \cos x$

45. $y'' + y = \sec x \tan x, \quad -\dfrac{\pi}{2} < x < \dfrac{\pi}{2}$

46. $y'' - 3y' + 2y = e^x - e^{2x}$

The method of undetermined coefficients can sometimes be used to solve first-order ordinary differential equations. Use the method to solve the equations in Exercises 47–50.

47. $y' - 3y = e^x$

48. $y' + 4y = x$

49. $y' - 3y = 5e^{3x}$

50. $y' + y = \sin x$

Solve the differential equations in Exercises 51 and 52 subject to the given initial conditions.

51. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = \sec^2 x, \quad -\dfrac{\pi}{2} < x < \dfrac{\pi}{2}; \quad y(0) = y'(0) = 1$

52. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = e^{2x}; \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = \dfrac{2}{5}$

In Exercises 53–58, verify that the given function is a particular solution to the specified nonhomogeneous equation. Find the general solution and evaluate its arbitrary constants to find the unique solution satisfying the equation and the given initial conditions.

53. $y'' + y' = x, \quad y_p = \dfrac{x^2}{2} - x, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = 0$

54. $y'' + y = x, \quad y_p = 2 \sin x + x, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = 0$

55. $\dfrac{1}{2}y'' + y' + y = 4e^x(\cos x - \sin x)$,
$y_p = 2e^x \cos x, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = 1$

56. $y'' - y' - 2y = 1 - 2x, \quad y_p = x - 1, \quad y(0) = 0, \; y'(0) = 1$

57. $y'' - 2y' + y = 2e^x, \quad y_p = x^2e^x, \quad y(0) = 1, \; y'(0) = 0$

58. $y'' - 2y' + y = x^{-1}e^x, \; x > 0$,
$y_p = xe^x \ln x, \quad y(1) = e, \; y'(1) = 0$

In Exercises 59 and 60, two linearly independent solutions y_1 and y_2 are given to the associated homogeneous equation of the variable-coefficient nonhomogeneous equation. Use the method of variation of parameters to find a particular solution to the nonhomogeneous equation. Assume $x > 0$ in each exercise.

59. $x^2y'' + 2xy' - 2y = x^2, \quad y_1 = x^{-2}, \; y_2 = x$

60. $x^2y'' + xy' - y = x, \quad y_1 = x^{-1}, \; y_2 = x$

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16.3 Applications

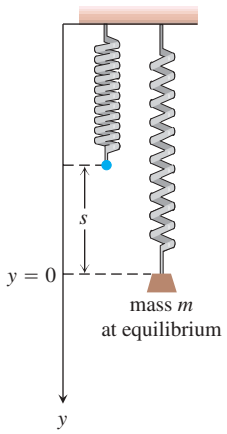

FIGURE 16.2 Mass m stretches a spring by length s to the equilibrium position at $y = 0$.

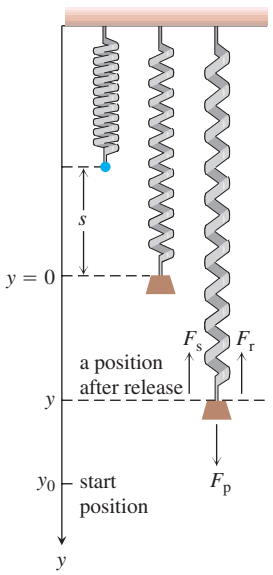

FIGURE 16.3 The propulsion force (weight) F_p pulls the mass downward, but the spring restoring force F_s and frictional force F_r pull the mass upward. The motion starts at $y = y_0$ with the mass vibrating up and down.

In this section we apply second-order differential equations to the study of vibrating springs and electric circuits.

Vibrations

A spring has its upper end fastened to a rigid support, as shown in Figure 16.2. An object of mass m is suspended from the spring and stretches it a length s when the spring comes to rest in an equilibrium position. According to Hooke's Law (Section 6.6), the tension force in the spring is ks, where k is the spring constant. The force due to gravity pulling down on the spring is mg, and equilibrium requires that

$$ks = mg. \tag{1}$$

Suppose that the object is pulled down an additional amount y_0 beyond the equilibrium position and then released. We want to study the object's motion, that is, the vertical position of its center of mass at any future time.

Let y, with positive direction downward, denote the displacement position of the object away from the equilibrium position $y = 0$ at any time t after the motion has started. Then the forces acting on the object are (see Figure 16.3)

$F_p = mg$, the propulsion force due to gravity,

$F_s = k(s + y)$, the restoring force of the spring's tension,

$F_r = \delta \dfrac{dy}{dt}$, a frictional force assumed proportional to velocity.

The frictional force tends to retard the motion of the object. The resultant of these forces is $F = F_p - F_s - F_r$, and by Newton's second law $F = ma$, we must then have

$$m\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} = mg - ks - ky - \delta\frac{dy}{dt}.$$

By Equation (1), $mg - ks = 0$, so this last equation becomes

$$m\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + \delta\frac{dy}{dt} + ky = 0, \tag{2}$$

subject to the initial conditions $y(0) = y_0$ and $y'(0) = 0$. (Here we use the prime notation to denote differentiation with respect to time t.)

You might expect that the motion predicted by Equation (2) will be oscillatory about the equilibrium position $y = 0$ and eventually damp to zero because of the retarding frictional force. This is indeed the case, and we will show how the constants m, δ, and k determine the nature of the damping. You will also see that if there is no friction (so $\delta = 0$), then the object will simply oscillate indefinitely.

Simple Harmonic Motion

Suppose first that there is no retarding frictional force. Then $\delta = 0$ and there is no damping. If we substitute $\omega = \sqrt{k/m}$ to simplify our calculations, then the second-order equation (2) becomes

$$y'' + \omega^2 y = 0, \quad \text{with} \quad y(0) = y_0 \quad \text{and} \quad y'(0) = 0.$$

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The auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 + \omega^2 = 0,$$

having the imaginary roots $r = \pm\omega i$. The general solution to the differential equation in (2) is

$$y = c_1 \cos \omega t + c_2 \sin \omega t. \tag{3}$$

To fit the initial conditions, we compute

$$y' = -c_1\omega \sin \omega t + c_2\omega \cos \omega t$$

and then substitute the conditions. This yields $c_1 = y_0$ and $c_2 = 0$. The particular solution

$$y = y_0 \cos \omega t \tag{4}$$

describes the motion of the object. Equation (4) represents **simple harmonic motion** of amplitude y_0 and period $T = 2\pi/\omega$.

The general solution given by Equation (3) can be combined into a single term by using the trigonometric identity

$$\sin(\omega t + \phi) = \cos \omega t \sin \phi + \sin \omega t \cos \phi.$$

To apply the identity, we take (see Figure 16.4)

$$c_1 = C \sin \phi \qquad \text{and} \qquad c_2 = C \cos \phi,$$

where

$$C = \sqrt{c_1^2 + c_2^2} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{c_1}{c_2}.$$

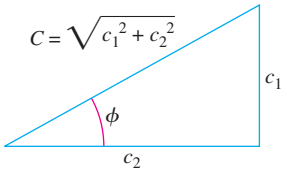

FIGURE 16.4 $c_1 = C \sin \phi$ and $c_2 = C \cos \phi$.

Then the general solution in Equation (3) can be written in the alternative form

$$y = C \sin(\omega t + \phi). \tag{5}$$

Here C and ϕ may be taken as two new arbitrary constants, replacing the two constants c_1 and c_2. Equation (5) represents simple harmonic motion of amplitude C and period $T = 2\pi/\omega$. The angle $\omega t + \phi$ is called the **phase angle**, and ϕ may be interpreted as its initial value. A graph of the simple harmonic motion represented by Equation (5) is given in Figure 16.5.

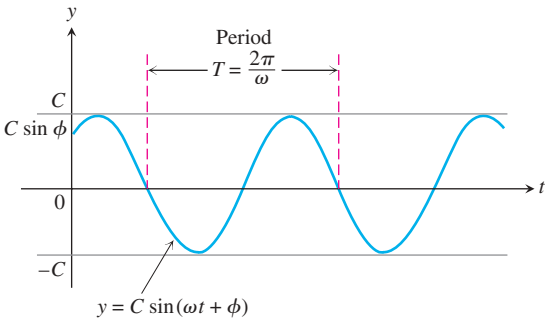

FIGURE 16.5 Simple harmonic motion of amplitude C and period T with initial phase angle ϕ (Equation 5).

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Damped Motion

Assume now that there is friction in the spring system, so $\delta \neq 0$. If we substitute $\omega = \sqrt{k/m}$ and $2b = \delta/m$, then the differential equation (2) is

$$y'' + 2by' + \omega^2 y = 0. \tag{6}$$

The auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 + 2br + \omega^2 = 0,$$

with roots $r = -b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - \omega^2}$. Three cases now present themselves, depending upon the relative sizes of b and ω.

Case 1: $b = \omega$. The double root of the auxiliary equation is real and equals $r = \omega$. The general solution to Equation (6) is

$$y = (c_1 + c_2 t)e^{-\omega t}.$$

This situation of motion is called **critical damping** and is not oscillatory. Figure 16.6a shows an example of this kind of damped motion.

Case 2: $b > \omega$. The roots of the auxiliary equation are real and unequal, given by $r_1 = -b + \sqrt{b^2 - \omega^2}$ and $r_2 = -b - \sqrt{b^2 - \omega^2}$. The general solution to Equation (6) is given by

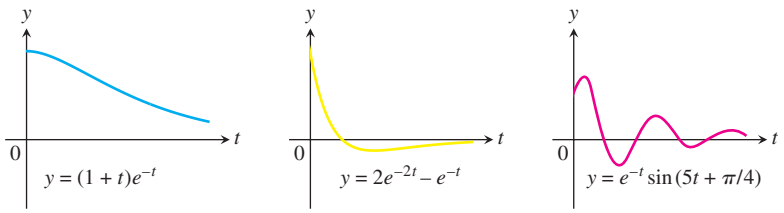
$$y = c_1 e^{\left(-b+\sqrt{b^2-\omega^2}\right)t} + c_2 e^{\left(-b-\sqrt{b^2-\omega^2}\right)t}.$$

Here again the motion is not oscillatory and both r_1 and r_2 are negative. Thus y approaches zero as time goes on. This motion is referred to as **overdamping** (see Figure 16.6b).

Case 3: $b < \omega$. The roots to the auxiliary equation are complex and given by $r = -b \pm i\sqrt{\omega^2 - b^2}$. The general solution to Equation (6) is given by

$$y = e^{-bt}\left(c_1 \cos\sqrt{\omega^2 - b^2}\, t + c_2 \sin\sqrt{\omega^2 - b^2}\, t\right).$$

This situation, called **underdamping**, represents damped oscillatory motion. It is analogous to simple harmonic motion of period $T = 2\pi/\sqrt{\omega^2 - b^2}$ except that the amplitude is not constant but damped by the factor e^{-bt}. Therefore, the motion tends to zero as t increases, so the vibrations tend to die out as time goes on. Notice that the period $T = 2\pi/\sqrt{\omega^2 - b^2}$ is larger than the period $T_0 = 2\pi/\omega$ in the friction-free system. Moreover, the larger the value of $b = \delta/2m$ in the exponential damping factor, the more quickly the vibrations tend to become unnoticeable. A curve illustrating underdamped motion is shown in Figure 16.6c.



(a) Critical damping (b) Overdamping (c) Underdamping

FIGURE 16.6 Three examples of damped vibratory motion for a spring system with friction, so $\delta \neq 0$.

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An external force $F(t)$ can also be added to the spring system modeled by Equation (2). The forcing function may represent an external disturbance on the system. For instance, if the equation models an automobile suspension system, the forcing function might represent periodic bumps or potholes in the road affecting the performance of the suspension system; or it might represent the effects of winds when modeling the vertical motion of a suspension bridge. Inclusion of a forcing function results in the second-order nonhomogeneous equation

$$m\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + \delta\frac{dy}{dt} + ky = F(t). \tag{7}$$

We leave the study of such spring systems to a more advanced course.

Electric Circuits

The basic quantity in electricity is the **charge** q (analogous to the idea of mass). In an electric field we use the flow of charge, or **current** $I = dq/dt$, as we might use velocity in a gravitational field. There are many similarities between motion in a gravitational field and the flow of electrons (the carriers of charge) in an electric field.

Consider the electric circuit shown in Figure 16.7. It consists of four components: voltage source, resistor, inductor, and capacitor. Think of electrical flow as being like a fluid flow, where the voltage source is the pump and the resistor, inductor, and capacitor tend to block the flow. A battery or generator is an example of a source, producing a voltage that causes the current to flow through the circuit when the switch is closed. An electric light bulb or appliance would provide resistance. The inductance is due to a magnetic field that opposes any change in the current as it flows through a coil. The capacitance is normally created by two metal plates that alternate charges and thus reverse the current flow. The following symbols specify the quantities relevant to the circuit:

- q: charge at a cross section of a conductor measured in **coulombs** (abbreviated c);
- I: current or rate of change of charge dq/dt (flow of electrons) at a cross section of a conductor measured in **amperes** (abbreviated A);
- E: electric (potential) source measured in **volts** (abbreviated V);
- V: difference in potential between two points along the conductor measured in **volts** (V).

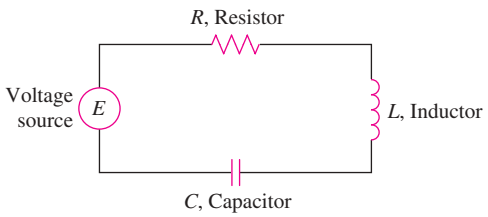

FIGURE 16.7 An electric circuit.

Ohm observed that the current I flowing through a resistor, caused by a potential difference across it, is (approximately) proportional to the potential difference (voltage drop). He named his constant of proportionality $1/R$ and called R the **resistance**. So *Ohm's law* is

$$I = \frac{1}{R}V.$$

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Similarly, it is known from physics that the voltage drops across an inductor and a capacitor are

$$L\frac{dI}{dt} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{q}{C},$$

where L is the **inductance** and C is the **capacitance** (with q the charge on the capacitor).

The German physicist Gustav R. Kirchhoff (1824–1887) formulated the law that the sum of the voltage drops in a closed circuit is equal to the supplied voltage $E(t)$. Symbolically, this says that

$$RI + L\frac{dI}{dt} + \frac{q}{C} = E(t).$$

Since $I = dq/dt$, Kirchhoff's law becomes

$$L\frac{d^2q}{dt^2} + R\frac{dq}{dt} + \frac{1}{C}q = E(t). \tag{8}$$

The second-order differential equation (8), which models an electric circuit, has exactly the same form as Equation (7) modeling vibratory motion. Both models can be solved using the methods developed in Section 16.2.

Summary

The following chart summarizes our analogies for the physics of motion of an object in a spring system versus the flow of charged particles in an electrical circuit.

Linear Second-Order Constant-Coefficient Models

Mechanical System		Electrical System	
$my'' + \delta y' + ky = F(t)$		$Lq'' + Rq' + \frac{1}{C}q = E(t)$	
y:	displacement	q:	charge
y':	velocity	q':	current
y'':	acceleration	q'':	change in current
m:	mass	L:	inductance
δ:	damping constant	R:	resistance
k:	spring constant	$1/C$:	where C is the capacitance
$F(t)$:	forcing function	$E(t)$:	voltage source

EXERCISES 16.3

1. A 16-lb weight is attached to the lower end of a coil spring suspended from the ceiling and having a spring constant of 1 lb/ft. The resistance in the spring-mass system is numerically equal to the instantaneous velocity. At $t = 0$ the weight is set in motion from a position 2 ft below its equilibrium position by giving it a downward velocity of 2 ft/sec. Write an initial value problem that models the given situation.

2. An 8-lb weight stretches a spring 4 ft. The spring–mass system resides in a medium offering a resistance to the motion that is numerically equal to 1.5 times the instantaneous velocity. If the weight is released at a position 2 ft above its equilibrium position with a downward velocity of 3 ft/sec, write an initial value problem modeling the given situation.

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3. A 20-lb weight is hung on an 18-in. spring and stretches it 6 in. The weight is pulled down 5 in. and 5 lb are added to the weight. If the weight is now released with a downward velocity of v_0 in./sec, write an initial value problem modeling the vertical displacement.

4. A 10-lb weight is suspended by a spring that is stretched 2 in. by the weight. Assume a resistance whose magnitude is $20/\sqrt{g}$ lb times the instantaneous velocity v in feet per second. If the weight is pulled down 3 in. below its equilibrium position and released, formulate an initial value problem modeling the behavior of the spring–mass system.

5. An (open) electrical circuit consists of an inductor, a resistor, and a capacitor. There is an initial charge of 2 coulombs on the capacitor. At the instant the circuit is closed, a current of 3 amperes is present and a voltage of $E(t) = 20 \cos t$ is applied. In this circuit the voltage drop across the resistor is 4 times the instantaneous change in the charge, the voltage drop across the capacitor is 10 times the charge, and the voltage drop across the inductor is 2 times the instantaneous change in the current. Write an initial value problem to model the circuit.

6. An inductor of 2 henrys is connected in series with a resistor of 12 ohms, a capacitor of 1/16 farad, and a 300 volt battery. Initially, the charge on the capacitor is zero and the current is zero. Formulate an initial value problem modeling this electrical circuit.

Mechanical units in the British and metric systems may be helpful in doing the following problems.

Unit	British System	MKS System
Distance	Feet (ft)	Meters (m)
Mass	Slugs	Kilograms (kg)
Time	Seconds (sec)	Seconds (sec)
Force	Pounds (lb)	Newtons (N)
g(earth)	32 ft/sec^2	9.81 m/sec^2

7. A 16-lb weight is attached to the lower end of a coil spring suspended from the ceiling and having a spring constant of 1 lb/ft. The resistance in the spring–mass system is numerically equal to the instantaneous velocity. At $t = 0$ the weight is set in motion from a position 2 ft below its equilibrium position by giving it a downward velocity of 2 ft/sec. At the end of π sec, determine whether the mass is above or below the equilibrium position and by what distance.

8. An 8-lb weight stretches a spring 4 ft. The spring–mass system resides in a medium offering a resistance to the motion equal to 1.5 times the instantaneous velocity. If the weight is released at a position 2 ft above its equilibrium position with a downward velocity of 3 ft/sec, find its position relative to the equilibrium position 2 sec later.

9. A 20-lb weight is hung on an 18-in. spring stretching it 6 in. The weight is pulled down 5 in. and 5 lb are added to the weight. If the weight is now released with a downward velocity of v_0 in./sec, find the position of mass relative to the equilibrium in terms of v_0 and valid for any time $t \geq 0$.

10. A mass of 1 slug is attached to a spring whose constant is 25/4 lb/ft. Initially the mass is released 1 ft above the equilibrium position with a downward velocity of 3 ft/sec, and the subsequent motion takes place in a medium that offers a damping force numerically equal to 3 times the instantaneous velocity. An external force $f(t)$ is driving the system, but assume that initially $f(t) \equiv 0$. Formulate and solve an initial value problem that models the given system. Interpret your results.

11. A 10-lb weight is suspended by a spring that is stretched 2 in. by the weight. Assume a resistance whose magnitude is $40/\sqrt{g}$ lb times the instantaneous velocity in feet per second. If the weight is pulled down 3 in. below its equilibrium position and released, find the time required to reach the equilibrium position for the first time.

12. A weight stretches a spring 6 in. It is set in motion at a point 2 in. below its equilibrium position with a downward velocity of 2 in./sec.

a. When does the weight return to its starting position?

b. When does it reach its highest point?

c. Show that the maximum velocity is $2\sqrt{2g + 1}$ in./sec.

13. A weight of 10 lb stretches a spring 10 in. The weight is drawn down 2 in. below its equilibrium position and given an initial velocity of 4 in./sec. An identical spring has a different weight attached to it. This second weight is drawn down from its equilibrium position a distance equal to the amplitude of the first motion and then given an initial velocity of 2 ft/sec. If the amplitude of the second motion is twice that of the first, what weight is attached to the second spring?

14. A weight stretches one spring 3 in. and a second weight stretches another spring 9 in. If both weights are simultaneously pulled down 1 in. below their respective equilibrium positions and then released, find the first time after $t = 0$ when their velocities are equal.

15. A weight of 16 lb stretches a spring 4 ft. The weight is pulled down 5 ft below the equilibrium position and then released. What initial velocity v_0 given to the weight would have the effect of doubling the amplitude of the vibration?

16. A mass weighing 8 lb stretches a spring 3 in. The spring–mass system resides in a medium with a damping constant of 2 lb-sec/ft. If the mass is released from its equilibrium position with a velocity of 4 in./sec in the downward direction, find the time required for the mass to return to its equilibrium position for the first time.

17. A weight suspended from a spring executes damped vibrations with a period of 2 sec. If the damping factor decreases by 90% in 10 sec, find the acceleration of the weight when it is 3 in. below its equilibrium position and is moving upward with a speed of 2 ft/sec.

18. A 10-lb weight stretches a spring 2 ft. If the weight is pulled down 6 in. below its equilibrium position and released, find the highest point reached by the weight. Assume the spring–mass system resides in a medium offering a resistance of $10/\sqrt{g}$ lb times the instantaneous velocity in feet per second.

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19. An *LRC* circuit is set up with an inductance of 1/5 henry, a resistance of 1 ohm, and a capacitance of 5/6 farad. Assuming the initial charge is 2 coulombs and the initial current is 4 amperes, find the solution function describing the charge on the capacitor at any time. What is the charge on the capacitor after a long period of time?

20. An (open) electrical circuit consists of an inductor, a resistor, and a capacitor. There is an initial charge of 2 coulombs on the capacitor. At the instant the circuit is closed, a current of 3 amperes is present but no external voltage is being applied. In this circuit the voltage drops at three points are numerically related as follows: across the capacitor, 10 times the charge; across the resistor, 4 times the instantaneous change in the charge; and across the inductor, 2 times the instantaneous change in the current. Find the charge on the capacitor as a function of time.

21. A 16-lb weight stretches a spring 4 ft. This spring–mass system is in a medium with a damping constant of 4.5 lb-sec/ft, and an external force given by $f(t) = 4 + e^{-2t}$ (in pounds) is being applied. What is the solution function describing the position of the mass at any time if the mass is released from 2 ft below the equilibrium position with an initial velocity of 4 ft/sec downward?

22. A 10-kg mass is attached to a spring having a spring constant of 140 N/m. The mass is started in motion from the equilibrium position with an initial velocity of 1 m/sec in the upward direction and with an applied external force given by $f(t) = 5 \sin t$ (in newtons). The mass is in a viscous medium with a coefficient of resistance equal to 90 N-sec/m. Formulate an initial value problem that models the given system; solve the model and interpret the results.

23. A 2-kg mass is attached to the lower end of a coil spring suspended from the ceiling. The mass comes to rest in its equilibrium position thereby stretching the spring 1.96 m. The mass is in a viscous medium that offers a resistance in newtons numerically equal to 4 times the instantaneous velocity measured in meters per second. The mass is then pulled down 2 m below its equilibrium position and released with a downward velocity of 3 m/sec. At this same instant an external force given by $f(t) = 20 \cos t$ (in newtons) is applied to the system. At the end of π sec determine if the mass is above or below its equilibrium position and by how much.

24. An 8-lb weight stretches a spring 4 ft. The spring–mass system resides in a medium offering a resistance to the motion equal to 1.5 times the instantaneous velocity, and an external force given by $f(t) = 6 + e^{-t}$ (in pounds) is being applied. If the weight is released at a position 2 ft above its equilibrium position with downward velocity of 3 ft/sec, find its position relative to the equilibrium after 2 sec have elapsed.

25. Suppose $L = 10$ henrys, $R = 10$ ohms, $C = 1/500$ farads, $E = 100$ volts, $q(0) = 10$ coulombs, and $q'(0) = i(0) = 0$. Formulate and solve an initial value problem that models the given *LRC* circuit. Interpret your results.

26. A series circuit consisting of an inductor, a resistor, and a capacitor is open. There is an initial charge of 2 coulombs on the capacitor, and 3 amperes of current is present in the circuit at the instant the circuit is closed. A voltage given by $E(t) = 20 \cos t$ is applied. In this circuit the voltage drops are numerically equal to the following: across the resistor to 4 times the instantaneous change in the charge, across the capacitor to 10 times the charge, and across the inductor to 2 times the instantaneous change in the current. Find the charge on the capacitor as a function of time. Determine the charge on the capacitor and the current at time $t = 10$.

16.4 Euler Equations

In Section 16.1 we introduced the second-order linear homogeneous differential equation

$$P(x)y''(x) + Q(x)y'(x) + R(x)y(x) = 0$$

and showed how to solve this equation when the coefficients P, Q, and R are constants. If the coefficients are not constant, we cannot generally solve this differential equation in terms of elementary functions we have studied in calculus. In this section you will learn how to solve the equation when the coefficients have the special forms

$$P(x) = ax^2, \qquad Q(x) = bx, \qquad \text{and} \qquad R(x) = c,$$

where a, b, and c are constants. These special types of equations are called **Euler equations**, in honor of Leonhard Euler who studied them and showed how to solve them. Such equations arise in the study of mechanical vibrations.

The General Solution of Euler Equations

Consider the Euler equation

$$ax^2y'' + bxy' + cy = 0, \quad x > 0. \tag{1}$$

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To solve Equation (1), we first make the change of variables

$$z = \ln x \qquad \text{and} \qquad y(x) = Y(z).$$

We next use the chain rule to find the derivatives $y'(x)$ and $y''(x)$:

$$y'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}Y(z) = \frac{d}{dz}Y(z)\frac{dz}{dx} = Y'(z)\frac{1}{x}$$

and

$$y''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}y'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}Y'(z)\frac{1}{x} = -\frac{1}{x^2}Y'(z) + \frac{1}{x}Y''(z)\frac{dz}{dx} = -\frac{1}{x^2}Y'(z) + \frac{1}{x^2}Y''(z).$$

Substituting these two derivatives into the left-hand side of Equation (1), we find

$$ax^2y'' + bxy' + cy = ax^2\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}Y'(z) + \frac{1}{x^2}Y''(z)\right) + bx\left(\frac{1}{x}Y'(z)\right) + cY(z)$$

$$= aY''(z) + (b - a)Y'(z) + cY(z).$$

Therefore, the substitutions give us the second-order linear differential equation with constant coefficients

$$aY''(z) + (b - a)Y'(z) + cY(z) = 0. \tag{2}$$

We can solve Equation (2) using the method of Section 16.1. That is, we find the roots to the associated auxiliary equation

$$ar^2 + (b - a)r + c = 0 \tag{3}$$

to find the general solution for $Y(z)$. After finding $Y(z)$, we can determine $y(x)$ from the substitution $z = \ln x$.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the general solution of the equation $x^2y'' + 2xy' - 2y = 0$.

Solution This is an Euler equation with $a = 1$, $b = 2$, and $c = -2$. The auxiliary equation (3) for $Y(z)$ is

$$r^2 + (2 - 1)r - 2 = (r - 1)(r + 2) = 0,$$

with roots $r = -2$ and $r = 1$. The solution for $Y(z)$ is given by

$$Y(z) = c_1e^{-2z} + c_2e^{z}.$$

Substituting $z = \ln x$ gives the general solution for $y(x)$:

$$y(x) = c_1e^{-2\ln x} + c_2e^{\ln x} = c_1x^{-2} + c_2x$$ ■

EXAMPLE 2 Solve the Euler equation $x^2y'' - 5xy' + 9y = 0$.

Solution Since $a = 1$, $b = -5$, and $c = 9$, the auxiliary equation (3) for $Y(z)$ is

$$r^2 + (-5 - 1)r + 9 = (r - 3)^2 = 0.$$

The auxiliary equation has the double root $r = 3$ giving

$$Y(z) = c_1e^{3z} + c_2ze^{3z}.$$

Substituting $z = \ln x$ into this expression gives the general solution

$$y(x) = c_1e^{3\ln x} + c_2\ln x\, e^{3\ln x} = c_1x^3 + c_2x^3\ln x$$ ■

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EXAMPLE 3 Find the particular solution to $x^2y'' - 3xy' + 68y = 0$ that satisfies the initial conditions $y(1) = 0$ and $y'(1) = 1$.

Solution Here $a = 1$, $b = -3$, and $c = 68$ substituted into the auxiliary equation (3) gives

$$r^2 - 4r + 68 = 0.$$

The roots are $r = 2 + 8i$ and $r = 2 - 8i$ giving the solution

$$Y(z) = e^{2z}(c_1 \cos 8z + c_2 \sin 8z).$$

Substituting $z = \ln x$ into this expression gives

$$y(x) = e^{2\ln x}\big(c_1 \cos(8 \ln x) + c_2 \sin(8 \ln x)\big).$$

From the initial condition $y(1) = 0$, we see that $c_1 = 0$ and

$$y(x) = c_2 x^2 \sin(8 \ln x).$$

To fit the second initial condition, we need the derivative

$$y'(x) = c_2\big(8x \cos(8 \ln x) + 2x \sin(8 \ln x)\big).$$

Since $y'(1) = 1$, we immediately obtain $c_2 = 1/8$. Therefore, the particular solution satisfying both initial conditions is

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{8}x^2 \sin(8 \ln x).$$

Since $-1 \le \sin(8 \ln x) \le 1$, the solution satisfies

$$-\frac{x^2}{8} \le y(x) \le \frac{x^2}{8}.$$

A graph of the solution is shown in Figure 16.8. ■

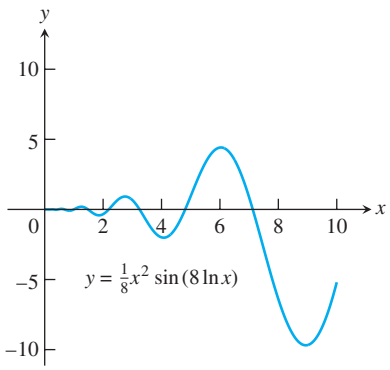

FIGURE 16.8 Graph of the solution to Example 3.

16.4 EXERCISES

In Exercises 1–24, find the general solution to the given Euler equation. Assume $x > 0$ throughout.

1. $x^2y'' + 2xy' - 2y = 0$
2. $x^2y'' + xy' - 4y = 0$
3. $x^2y'' - 6y = 0$
4. $x^2y'' + xy' - y = 0$
5. $x^2y'' - 5xy' + 8y = 0$
6. $2x^2y'' + 7xy' + 2y = 0$
7. $3x^2y'' + 4xy' = 0$
8. $x^2y'' + 6xy' + 4y = 0$
9. $x^2y'' - xy' + y = 0$
10. $x^2y'' - xy' + 2y = 0$
11. $x^2y'' - xy' + 5y = 0$
12. $x^2y'' + 7xy' + 13y = 0$
13. $x^2y'' + 3xy' + 10y = 0$
14. $x^2y'' - 5xy' + 10y = 0$
15. $4x^2y'' + 8xy' + 5y = 0$
16. $4x^2y'' - 4xy' + 5y = 0$
17. $x^2y'' + 3xy' + y = 0$
18. $x^2y'' - 3xy' + 9y = 0$
19. $x^2y'' + xy' = 0$
20. $4x^2y'' + y = 0$
21. $9x^2y'' + 15xy' + y = 0$
22. $16x^2y'' - 8xy' + 9y = 0$
23. $16x^2y'' + 56xy' + 25y = 0$
24. $4x^2y'' - 16xy' + 25y = 0$

In Exercises 25–30, solve the given initial value problem.

25. $x^2y'' + 3xy' - 3y = 0, \quad y(1) = 1, \; y'(1) = -1$
26. $6x^2y'' + 7xy' - 2y = 0, \quad y(1) = 0, \; y'(1) = 1$
27. $x^2y'' - xy' + y = 0, \quad y(1) = 1, \; y'(1) = 1$
28. $x^2y'' + 7xy' + 9y = 0, \quad y(1) = 1, \; y'(1) = 0$
29. $x^2y'' - xy' + 2y = 0, \quad y(1) = -1, \; y'(1) = 1$
30. $x^2y'' + 3xy' + 5y = 0, \quad y(1) = 1, \; y'(1) = 0$

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16.5 Power-Series Solutions

In this section we extend our study of second-order linear homogeneous equations with variable coefficients. With the Euler equations in Section 16.4, the power of the variable x in the nonconstant coefficient had to match the order of the derivative with which it was paired: x^2 with y'', x^1 with y', and $x^0\,(=1)$ with y. Here we drop that requirement so we can solve more general equations.

Method of Solution

The **power-series method** for solving a second-order homogeneous differential equation consists of finding the coefficients of a power series

$$y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots \tag{1}$$

which solves the equation. To apply the method we substitute the series and its derivatives into the differential equation to determine the coefficients $c_0, c_1, c_2, \ldots$. The technique for finding the coefficients is similar to that used in the method of undetermined coefficients presented in Section 16.2.

In our first example we demonstrate the method in the setting of a simple equation whose general solution we already know. This is to help you become more comfortable with solutions expressed in series form.

EXAMPLE 1 Solve the equation $y'' + y = 0$ by the power-series method.

Solution We assume the series solution takes the form of

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$$

and calculate the derivatives

$$y' = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1} \quad \text{and} \quad y'' = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) c_n x^{n-2}.$$

Substitution of these forms into the second-order equation gives us

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) c_n x^{n-2} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0.$$

Next, we equate the coefficients of each power of x to zero as summarized in the following table.

Power of x	Coefficient Equation		
x^0	$2(1)c_2 + c_0 = 0$	or	$c_2 = -\frac{1}{2} c_0$
x^1	$3(2)c_3 + c_1 = 0$	or	$c_3 = -\frac{1}{3 \cdot 2} c_1$
x^2	$4(3)c_4 + c_2 = 0$	or	$c_4 = -\frac{1}{4 \cdot 3} c_2$
x^3	$5(4)c_5 + c_3 = 0$	or	$c_5 = -\frac{1}{5 \cdot 4} c_3$
x^4	$6(5)c_6 + c_4 = 0$	or	$c_6 = -\frac{1}{6 \cdot 5} c_4$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$		$\vdots$
x^{n-2}	$n(n-1)c_n + c_{n-2} = 0$	or	$c_n = -\frac{1}{n(n-1)} c_{n-2}$

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From the table we notice that the coefficients with even indices ($n = 2k, k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$) are related to each other and the coefficients with odd indices ($n = 2k + 1$) are also interrelated. We treat each group in turn.

Even indices: Here $n = 2k$, so the power is x^{2k-2}. From the last line of the table, we have

$$2k(2k - 1)c_{2k} + c_{2k-2} = 0$$

or

$$c_{2k} = -\frac{1}{2k(2k - 1)}\, c_{2k-2}.$$

From this recursive relation we find

$$\begin{aligned} c_{2k} &= \left[-\frac{1}{2k(2k - 1)}\right]\left[-\frac{1}{(2k - 2)(2k - 3)}\right]\cdots\left[-\frac{1}{4(3)}\right]\left[-\frac{1}{2}\right]c_0 \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k)!}\, c_0. \end{aligned}$$

Odd indices: Here $n = 2k + 1$, so the power is x^{2k-1}. Substituting this into the last line of the table yields

$$(2k + 1)(2k)c_{2k+1} + c_{2k-1} = 0$$

or

$$c_{2k+1} = -\frac{1}{(2k + 1)(2k)}\, c_{2k-1}.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} c_{2k+1} &= \left[-\frac{1}{(2k + 1)(2k)}\right]\left[-\frac{1}{(2k - 1)(2k - 2)}\right]\cdots\left[-\frac{1}{5(4)}\right]\left[-\frac{1}{3(2)}\right]c_1 \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k + 1)!}\, c_1. \end{aligned}$$

Writing the power series by grouping its even and odd powers together and substituting for the coefficients yields

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{2k} x^{2k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{2k+1} x^{2k+1} \\ &= c_0 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k)!} x^{2k} + c_1 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k + 1)!} x^{2k+1}. \end{aligned}$$

From Table 8.1 in Section 8.10, we see that the first series on the right-hand side of the last equation represents the cosine function and the second series represents the sine. Thus, the general solution to $y'' + y = 0$ is

$$y = c_0 \cos x + c_1 \sin x.$$

■

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EXAMPLE 2 Find the general solution to $y'' + xy' + y = 0$.

Solution We assume the series solution form

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$$

and calculate the derivatives

$$y' = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1} \quad \text{and} \quad y'' = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) c_n x^{n-2}.$$

Substitution of these forms into the second-order equation yields

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) c_n x^{n-2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0$$

We equate the coefficients of each power of x to zero as summarized in the following table.

Power of x	**Coefficient Equation**		
x^0	$2(1)c_2 + c_0 = 0$	or	$c_2 = -\frac{1}{2} c_0$
x^1	$3(2)c_3 + c_1 + c_1 = 0$	or	$c_3 = -\frac{1}{3} c_1$
x^2	$4(3)c_4 + 2c_2 + c_2 = 0$	or	$c_4 = -\frac{1}{4} c_2$
x^3	$5(4)c_5 + 3c_3 + c_3 = 0$	or	$c_5 = -\frac{1}{5} c_3$
x^4	$6(5)c_6 + 4c_4 + c_4 = 0$	or	$c_6 = -\frac{1}{6} c_4$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$		$\vdots$
x^n	$(n+2)(n+1)c_{n+2} + (n+1)c_n = 0$	or	$c_{n+2} = -\dfrac{1}{n+2} c_n$

From the table notice that the coefficients with even indices are interrelated and the coefficients with odd indices are also interrelated.

Even indices: Here $n = 2k - 2$, so the power is x^{2k-2}. From the last line in the table, we have

$$c_{2k} = -\frac{1}{2k} c_{2k-2}.$$

From this recurrence relation we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} c_{2k} &= \left(-\frac{1}{2k}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2k-2}\right)\cdots\left(-\frac{1}{6}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{4}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)c_0 \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{(2)(4)(6)\cdots(2k)} c_0. \end{aligned}$$

Odd indices: Here $n = 2k - 1$, so the power is x^{2k-1}. From the last line in the table, we have

$$c_{2k+1} = -\frac{1}{2k+1} c_{2k-1}.$$

From this recurrence relation we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} c_{2k+1} &= \left(-\frac{1}{2k+1}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2k-1}\right)\cdots\left(-\frac{1}{5}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)c_1 \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{(3)(5)\cdots(2k+1)} c_1. \end{aligned}$$

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Writing the power series by grouping its even and odd powers and substituting for the coefficients yields

$$y = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{2k}x^{2k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{2k+1}x^{2k+1}$$
$$= c_0\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2)(4)\cdots(2k)}x^{2k} + c_1\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(3)(5)\cdots(2k+1)}x^{2k+1}.$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the general solution to

$$(1 - x^2)y'' - 6xy' - 4y = 0, \qquad |x| < 1.$$

Solution Notice that the leading coefficient is zero when $x = \pm 1$. Thus, we assume the solution interval I: $-1 < x < 1$. Substitution of the series form

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$$

and its derivatives gives us

$$(1 - x^2)\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)c_n x^{n-2} - 6\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nc_n x^n - 4\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0,$$
$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)c_n x^{n-2} - \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)c_n x^n - 6\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nc_n x^n - 4\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0.$$

Next, we equate the coefficients of each power of x to zero as summarized in the following table.

Power of x	**Coefficient Equation**		
x^0	$2(1)c_2 - 4c_0 = 0$	or	$c_2 = \frac{4}{2}c_0$
x^1	$3(2)c_3 - 6(1)c_1 - 4c_1 = 0$	or	$c_3 = \frac{5}{3}c_1$
x^2	$4(3)c_4 - 2(1)c_2 - 6(2)c_2 - 4c_2 = 0$	or	$c_4 = \frac{6}{4}c_2$
x^3	$5(4)c_5 - 3(2)c_3 - 6(3)c_3 - 4c_3 = 0$	or	$c_5 = \frac{7}{5}c_3$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$		$\vdots$
x^n	$(n+2)(n+1)c_{n+2} - [n(n-1) + 6n + 4]c_n = 0$		
	$(n+2)(n+1)c_{n+2} - (n+4)(n+1)c_n = 0$	or	$c_{n+2} = \frac{n+4}{n+2}c_n$

Again we notice that the coefficients with even indices are interrelated and those with odd indices are interrelated.

Even indices: Here $n = 2k - 2$, so the power is x^{2k}. From the right-hand column and last line of the table, we get

$$c_{2k} = \frac{2k+2}{2k}c_{2k-2}$$
$$= \left(\frac{2k+2}{2k}\right)\left(\frac{2k}{2k-2}\right)\left(\frac{2k-2}{2k-4}\right)\cdots\frac{6}{4}\left(\frac{4}{2}\right)c_0$$
$$= (k+1)c_0.$$

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Odd indices: Here $n = 2k - 1$, so the power is x^{2k+1}. The right-hand column and last line of the table gives us

$$\begin{aligned} c_{2k+1} &= \frac{2k+3}{2k+1} c_{2k-1} \\ &= \left(\frac{2k+3}{2k+1}\right)\left(\frac{2k+1}{2k-1}\right)\left(\frac{2k-1}{2k-3}\right)\cdots\frac{7}{5}\left(\frac{5}{3}\right)c_1 \\ &= \frac{2k+3}{3} c_1. \end{aligned}$$

The general solution is

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{2k} x^{2k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{2k+1} x^{2k+1} \\ &= c_0 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1) x^{2k} + c_1 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{2k+3}{3} x^{2k+1}. \end{aligned}$$

■

EXAMPLE 4 Find the general solution to $y'' - 2xy' + y = 0$.

Solution Assuming that

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n,$$

substitution into the differential equation gives us

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) c_n x^{n-2} - 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0.$$

We next determine the coefficients, listing them in the following table.

Power of x	Coefficient Equation		
x^0	$2(1)c_2 + c_0 = 0$	or	$c_2 = -\frac{1}{2} c_0$
x^1	$3(2)c_3 - 2c_1 + c_1 = 0$	or	$c_3 = \frac{1}{3 \cdot 2} c_1$
x^2	$4(3)c_4 - 4c_2 + c_2 = 0$	or	$c_4 = \frac{3}{4 \cdot 3} c_2$
x^3	$5(4)c_5 - 6c_3 + c_3 = 0$	or	$c_5 = \frac{5}{5 \cdot 4} c_3$
x^4	$6(5)c_6 - 8c_4 + c_4 = 0$	or	$c_6 = \frac{7}{6 \cdot 5} c_4$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$		$\vdots$
x^n	$(n+2)(n+1)c_{n+2} - (2n-1)c_n = 0$	or	$c_{n+2} = \frac{2n-1}{(n+2)(n+1)} c_n$

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From the recursive relation

$$c_{n+2} = \frac{2n - 1}{(n + 2)(n + 1)}\, c_n,$$

we write out the first few terms of each series for the general solution:

$$y = c_0\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{3}{4!}x^4 - \frac{21}{6!}x^6 - \cdots\right) + c_1\left(x + \frac{1}{3!}x^3 + \frac{5}{5!}x^5 + \frac{45}{7!}x^7 + \cdots\right).$$

EXERCISES 16.5

In Exercises 1–18, use power series to find the general solution of the differential equation.

1. $y'' + 2y' = 0$

2. $y'' + 2y' + y = 0$

3. $y'' + 4y = 0$

4. $y'' - 3y' + 2y = 0$

5. $x^2y'' - 2xy' + 2y = 0$

6. $y'' - xy' + y = 0$

7. $(1 + x)y'' - y = 0$

8. $(1 - x^2)y'' - 4xy' + 6y = 0$

9. $(x^2 - 1)y'' + 2xy' - 2y = 0$

10. $y'' + y' - x^2y = 0$

11. $(x^2 - 1)y'' - 6y = 0$

12. $xy'' - (x + 2)y' + 2y = 0$

13. $(x^2 - 1)y'' + 4xy' + 2y = 0$

14. $y'' - 2xy' + 4y = 0$

15. $y'' - 2xy' + 3y = 0$

16. $(1 - x^2)y'' - xy' + 4y = 0$

17. $y'' - xy' + 3y = 0$

18. $x^2y'' - 4xy' + 6y = 0$

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